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SECONDARY EDUCATION IN COUNTRY AND VILLAGE

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN COUNTRY AND VILLAGE

BY

EMERY N. FERRISS, PH.D.

PROFESSOR OF RURAL EDUCATION IN
CORNELL UNIVERSITY

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PREFACE

The first quarter of the present century has seen in this country a remarkable growth in public secondary education. One of the significant phases of this growth has been the development of secondary schools in small villages and in the open country. At the present time practically all social, economic, and intellectual levels with a great diversity of educational needs are represented in the pupil population of the public secondary school. During the same period of time, but more slowly, a body of theory as to the nature and purposes of secondary education in a democracy has been evolving. That every normal adolescent boy or girl should find in the secondary school educational opportunities suited to his capacities, interests, and purposes may be said to have become a generally accepted principle, in theory. In practice, the principle is as yet but imperfectly realized, particularly in the small high school furnishing the educational opportunities for the youth of rural and village communities.

The purpose of this book is to present from both the psychological and the sociological aspects—in so far as possible at the present stage of their development—the guiding principles of secondary education in a democracy, to indicate their bearing upon the work of the small secondary school, and to consider with reference to these principles some of the major problems of the secondary school in small communities. Throughout, the author has attempted to interpret the activities of the small secondary school in terms of the pupil and the demands of life in a democratic form of society.

In developing the theme, the adaptation of secondary

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education to the conditions and needs of rural and village communities, the author has organized his materials under five main heads: Part I gives a brief historical survey of secondary education in this country, suggests a point of view, and presents statistical material to show the present status of secondary education in rural and village communities. Part II is devoted to a discussion of the aims, objectives, materials, and means in secondary education and the problems of the application of the principles involved to the determination of aims and objectives and to the content and organization of curriculums in the small secondary school. In Parts III and IV, respectively, are considered the problems of general organization and the internal organization of the secondary school with reference to adaptation to the conditions found in the small community. Part V is given over to the discussion of such broad problems and aspects of secondary education in the small community as problems of administration, supervision of instruction, and the growth of teachers in service, coöperation between school and community, the school and the adult, and a concluding chapter on life activities and needs in rural and village communities and their educational implications.

The author wishes to acknowledge his indebtedness to many writers on secondary education, to many principals and teachers in small high schools throughout the country, with whom he has discussed the problems of the small high school, and to the members of his classes in Rural Secondary Education in Cornell University for their helpful criticisms and suggestions. Special acknowledgment is gratefully made to Dr. George A. Works for helpful, stimulating criticisms throughout the preparation of the book and to Drs. T. E. Eaton and J. E. Butterworth of Cornell and Dr. L. M. Lathrop of the University of Minnesota for their critical reading of certain parts of the manuscript.

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PART I

INTRODUCTION

SECONDARY EDUCATION IN COUNTRY AND VILLAGE

CHAPTER I

HISTORICAL RETROSPECT AND POINT OF VIEW

Major steps in the evolution of the secondary school.—The public high school sprang up in response to public demand to fill a gap in the system of public education. At first it aimed to afford opportunities for secondary education adapted to the needs of those not expecting to attend college as well as of those desiring preparation for college. It might be said that it represented the real beginning in the democratization of secondary education in this country. The Latin grammar school, our first secondary school, was avowedly a highly selective institution the aim of which was preparation for college through a curriculum heavily weighted with the ancient languages. The academy with its development beginning in the middle of the eighteenth century and reaching its zenith about a century later at first represented a reaction against the narrowness of the Latin grammar school. It aimed through a broad curriculum at practical training for all youth. As time went on, however, it gradually became more and more a college preparatory institution and representative of the aristocratic ideas of secondary education. As a secondary school fitted to meet the needs of a growing democracy, it had the weakness of being in the main under private or semiprivate control and of being a tuition school. Although in some instances it came in time to receive aid from the state, the

nature of its support and control unfitted it for ever becoming the dominant secondary school for serving the needs of all the people.

Importance of the Latin grammar school and academy in the development of secondary education.—The Latin grammar school and the early academy served an important function in the development of public secondary education in the United States beyond the actual service rendered educationally. They stimulated the demand for secondary education under public control. There was desired an institution for secondary training under public control with a curriculum broad enough to meet the needs of all boys and girls. In answer to this demand the public high school had its origin early in the nineteenth century and by the last quarter of that century had become quite generally recognized as an integral part of the state school system.

Character of the public high school in its early development.—Throughout the nineteenth century its development was largely limited to the urban centers. Although a public institution starting with the aim of a practical education for all youth, it naturally inherited the conception of secondary education as a selective training for those who by reason of favorable social, economic, or intellectual status might be regarded as fitted to become leaders in life. Although it had its origin as a protest, in a sense, against the highly selective character of its predecessors, and was in the beginning intended to provide secondary education extensive enough "to qualify a youth to fill usefully and respectably many of those stations, both public and private, in which he may be placed," the development of this broad, democratic concept in practice was slow and halting. Even yet the broad democratic ideal of public secondary education has never been more than partially realized, particularly in the small high schools scattered over the country.

Forces influencing the character of the public high school.—Gradually under the dominating power of college entrance requirements, and the accrediting system, particularly in the Middle West and West (begun by Michigan in 1871), the high school, like its predecessors, became primarily a preparatory institution. As a result of the influence just mentioned and of the controlling aims of secondary education, the requirements upon every pupil were made in terms of the entrance demands of colleges of liberal arts. In practice this narrow interpretation of secondary education held practically inviolate, particularly in the small high schools, during the nineteenth century and is to-day the strongest single influence in determining the foundation of curriculums and standards in those schools.

Growth of the public high school.—Notwithstanding the fact that its curriculums and standards became in a large measure those originally designed for a select body of youth, the high school grew rapidly in popularity. It attracted pupils in rapidly increasing numbers. By 1900 there were over 6,000 public high schools with an enrollment of over one-half million or approximately seven out of each 1,000 of population. Twenty years later, or in 1920, the number of high schools had increased to more than 16,000 with an enrollment of practically 2,000,000, or almost eighteen for each 1,000 of population. The phenomenal growth in number of high schools and in number of pupils enrolled, and the consequent increase in the proportion of the population attending the public high school meant that it was serving an ever increasingly representative pupil population. It was rapidly tapping new social, economic, and intellectual groups in American society with ever widening educational needs and interests.

Recent major tendencies.—During the present century two tendencies have been prominent in the development of public secondary education. The first has been a tendency, gradually growing in strength and definiteness, to-

ward an adjustment of the school to the educational needs of a democracy. The second has been the development of the secondary school in rural and village communities. Neither tendency has fully realized its objectives but considerable progress has been made in both directions.

Within the first quarter of the present century the idea that public secondary education should be for all social, economic, and vocational groups has in theory won wide acceptance. The idea of differentiation in the curriculums offered to meet the diverse needs of the heterogeneous pupil population of the modern high school has made less progress. Secondary schools have been made accessible to the major proportion of children of secondary-school age. Even yet, however, many rural and village communities either lack high-school facilities entirely or have accessible only those very inadequate in character as measured by the educational needs of all boys and girls of to-day.

The adaptation of the secondary school to new demands.—The adaptation of the secondary school to the varying capacities and needs of the different types of pupils pursuing secondary-school training has made some progress. As yet in the small high school it is far from what it should be. The organization of studies and curriculums has retained, in spite of changed demands and needs, the characteristics of an education designed for a highly selected group. The standards have been determined on the basis of pupils of superior ability rather than on the ability to achieve of the present pupil population of our secondary schools. Inglis has made the statement that "the academic studies of our high schools are geared up so that they cannot be undertaken satisfactorily by more than one-half of American citizens."[1] As the high-school population has become more representative of all levels in American life, the distance between educational needs on the

[1] Alexander Inglis, "The High School in Evolution," *The New Republic*, November 7, 1923, p. 2.

one hand and subject matter and standards of achievement on the other has increased. In the small high school where the work given has followed more closely along traditional lines, the divorcement between present life demands and the type of work offered has become particularly serious.

In the urban high schools the last two decades have shown a wide expansion in the number and character of subjects and curriculums offered until in 1918 only 56 per cent of the pupils enrolled in city high schools were pursuing academic or college preparatory curriculums. In small high schools, with small teaching staffs and equipment and limited pupil enrollments, 91 per cent of the pupils were pursuing academic or college preparatory work.[2] In the small high school, also, the academic curriculums offered were of more traditional types than those in the large urban high school.

Forces affecting the work of the small high school.—Two forces particularly have made the adjustment of the small high school to modern demands slow and imperfect: the college entrance requirements and the old disciplinary, cultural idea of education. It has been a democratic ideal of education that all should have equal educational opportunities. In the small high school this has been rightly interpreted to mean that the road should be open in every school to prepare for college. Offering the work required for college entrance, however, has exhausted the energies of the small high school. As a result, equal opportunities for all has meant that all pupils have been forced to follow the same path to a secondary education. Even where curriculums other than the college preparatory have been offered, they have had as their core the college preparatory subjects. There has been one royal road to education in the small high school.

While there has been a gradual movement toward greater

[2] "Statistics of Public High Schools 1917-18," Bulletin No. 19, United States Bureau of Education (1920), pp. 50-55.

flexibility in college entrance requirements and some of the most prominent universities and colleges have become rather liberal in their demands, yet, the majority have clung tenaciously to traditional requirements built around mathematics and languages: The basis for recognition of the work of the small high school in most states is the entrance requirements of the colleges of the state. These have in the main continued to be requirements set up by colleges of liberal arts in terms of subjects regarded as essential in preparation for work in the higher institutions when higher education in this country was largely limited to liberal arts work. A study of the requirements in the several states for accrediting high schools shows that they are in terms of English, mathematics, foreign languages, the natural sciences, and the social sciences. Superficially considered, those requirements may seem sufficiently liberal, but when examined in the light of the demands of the present time, with the many different types of pupils at present enrolled in secondary schools, and with regard to the relative amount of emphasis placed in practice upon the several groups of subjects, they appear much more restrictive.

Requirements for graduation in the small high school.—As is natural, in the small high schools the requirements for graduation are practically synonymous with state requirements for accrediting high schools. Where they differ at all they tend to be more traditional. It is almost impossible for a pupil to be graduated from a small high school without higher mathematics, ancient and medieval history, and a foreign language. On the other hand, it is highly probable that he will complete his high-school course with very little natural science and with a very limited knowledge of social science. For the pupil who receives but one or two years of training in the small high school, the opportunity to pursue studies closely related to human affairs to-day is extremely meager. This condition exists in spite of the fact that the pupil when he leaves high school enters

a world where he is faced every minute of his life with facts, principles, and operations of science, and where the needs of understanding social, economic, occupational, and moral problems are pressing and insistent.

The aims of the small high school.—Whatever may have been the guiding aim of the small high school in theory, in practice it has been preparation for college. Whatever expansion, generally speaking, has come in the program of the small high school has been largely supplementary to this dominant aim. The basis of training for all pupils has continued practically unaltered as is shown by the requirements for graduation in the large proportion of small high schools of the various states. The standards also have been those acceptable for entrance into a college or university although but a relatively small percentage of the pupils who attend the high school ever enter the higher institution. Since the World War, citizenship has nominally been accepted in many instances as the aim of secondary education, but the meaning of the term has been so hazy and indefinite and the objectives of citizenship so illy defined that its effect upon the work of the small high school has had practically no beneficial results.

In the past, owing to the force of the idea of general discipline and the prevailing conceptions of liberal and cultural, there has been practical uniformity in what has been thought of as the basic work done in all high schools whether situated in the city, the village, or the open country; whether in Maine, Alabama, Oklahoma, or Oregon. Uniform curriculums, courses of study, and textbooks have been frequently prescribed for all the small high schools of a state, large urban schools usually being in large measure exempt from these prescriptions.

Many have insisted, and many still maintain the position, that there should be no difference between rural and village secondary education on the one hand and urban on the other. Since both the terms liberal and cultural have been

interpreted narrowly and according to tradition with certain subjects as Latin, mathematics, and ancient history regarded as the only roads by which youth can approach the state of liberality or culture, these subjects have been prominent. Many advocates of "culture" also have taken the monkish attitude that a study ceases to be cultural or liberalizing to the extent that it is pursued for any utilitarian purpose. The influence of these views has permeated all stages of education but has been most stagnating in its effect upon the small high school with its limited program, with the result that the major part of the training in such a school has had the minimum of relationship either to the pupil's social or physical environment. With minor exceptions, the youth trained in the small school has gone out into his community or elsewhere with little understanding or appreciation of the complex, interlocking social, economic, and occupational activities of the present time. He has gone out with no adequate background of school experience that would enable him to select and appreciate the elements of culture significant for the average person in giving meaning and richness to the activities of modern life.

The real fundamentals of secondary education.—Some are deploring the tendency of secondary schools to expand their programs to include the so-called new studies and vocational courses. They plead for a restriction of secondary-school work to what they term the fundamentals. In the main, those holding this view think of the traditional subjects as representing the fundamentals and forget that the secondary school of the present represents all levels of society and a corresponding range of abilities, interests, and needs. They forget that the demands of life are constantly changing. There is need on their part, it would seem, for a new interpretation of fundamentals, not in terms of tradition but in terms of modern needs. The most immediate and important needs of the large proportion of people to-day are those growing out of the life

activities of to-day. These are the real fundamentals. They are to be gained through the study of the vernacular as an instrument of expression and interpretation of thought; through modern literature; through various phases of science, modern history, civics, government, economics, institutional life, and art; and through an understanding, appreciation, and acquirement of the habits, attitudes, standards, and ideals controlling human affairs to-day. For those who have the time and leisure and for those who are specially gifted, it is undoubtedly often of value to push along different lines beyond the horizon of the present into the origins of modern practices, customs, prejudices, institutions, and culture. These, however, can never be the great majority. Our mistake in the past in secondary education, it would appear, has been to think of the needs of the many in terms of those things required by the few—the scholars or specialists. For the secondary school in a democracy the primary task should be that of meeting the more universal, immediate needs of people and its secondary task that of meeting the special needs of major groups for whom the secondary school represents the close of formal education.

The theory of a ruralized high school.—In the recent past a new and quite different theory of secondary education has sprung up in connection with the development of high schools for rural communities. It had its origin in the movement to keep people on the farm, resulting from the realization of the fact that the percentage of people living in the open country was rapidly decreasing. The high school was held to be an important factor in the urban drift when it was discovered that but a small percentage of the graduates of rural high schools remained on the farm.

The advocates of this theory have criticized the rural high school as being in large part responsible for the fact that the rural population has been rapidly pouring into

urban centers. They have conceived it to be the function of the rural high school to help stem the tide. To do this they would place in the open country the high school serving the educational needs of rural youth, surround it with a rural environment, offer curriculums and subject matter suitable as training for rural life and rural occupations, and thus by isolation, as it were, separate it from the knowledge and contacts tending to wean it away from the country. Thus they would "establish on the land a permanent agricultural population made up of the rural-minded people now there, and their natural increase from generation to generation."[3] Fortunately this theory of rural secondary education has never gained any wide acceptance.

Both of the views of secondary education mentioned above are narrow. They fail to give any adequate consideration to the significance of the secondary school as a social institution. They are inadequate and undemocratic. The high school in the rural or village community should not follow either in the development of its work. A public high school in a democracy must, within the limits of possibility, meet the educational needs of all pupils as determined by their capacities, interests, and purposes and leave open the way for individual choice as to life work. This means that the small high school should offer the greatest variety of educational opportunities within its means as determined by its teaching staff, equipment, and the other limiting factors. Its main emphasis should be upon those elements of secondary education of greatest significance to the many in human affairs of the present.

The pressing problem of secondary education.—The great problem for the twentieth century in American public secondary education is the realization in practice of a system of secondary schools genuinely democratic where the

[3] H. W. Foght, "The Real Problem of Rural Education," *Rural Education*, Vol. 2, No. 2 (December 15, 1920), p. 4.

road from the elementary school is open and free from obstacles and where every normal boy or girl of secondary-school age will find opportunity to pursue studies profitable to himself and the society of which he is a part and according to standards appropriate to his ability to achieve.

To develop a democratic system of public secondary education demands definite recognition of the fundamental principle that the secondary school is a social institution set up and maintained by a community to serve all the normal children of the community of secondary-school age. It must not restrict its opportunities to the interests and abilities of any one group either through its curriculums or standards to the neglect of any or all other groups. It must interpret the democratic ideal of equal opportunities for all in the light of the facts and principles of biology, psychology, and sociology. It must recognize that for two individuals to have equal opportunities means that each shall have the best opportunity possible to develop his own peculiar abilities and aptitudes, whatever they may be, so long as they are not antagonistic to the good of society. It must use in its adjustment the sociological principle of change, be capable of continuous adjustment, and meet as they appear the new educational demands of the time. It should not in all things lag behind the progress of the community which it serves, but in many respects through its influence upon a new generation it should become a leader in the community's progress.

Its requirements with respect to constants for all pupils must be determined upon the basis of integration and common needs, upon the relative universality and importance of needs rather than upon the preparatory needs of any special group—largely the determining basis heretofore. Its objectives, subject matter, and methods must be selected upon the basis of pupils' capacities, interests, and purposes and the demands made upon the individual efficiently participating in the affairs of modern life.

Any adequate statement of the guiding principles of secondary education in rural and village communities should include all the implications of the public secondary school as a social institution meeting the educational needs of the time. As the demands of the pupil's social environment change in accordance with new civic, social, economic, and occupational problems, it should modify its work. It should afford, within the possibilities of whatever limitations it may have, every boy and girl in the community opportunity to pursue studies of significant values to him and to the society in which he lives and according to standards appropriate to his ability to succeed. It should articulate closely with its contributory elementary schools thus affording a continuous educative process from the elementary school through all stages of secondary education. It should look upon guidance, particularly in the early years, as one of its most important services to youth. Finally, it should regard it as its primary responsibility to afford all children of secondary-school age an education based upon the activities and characteristics of life to-day.

Problems

1. Trace through in some detail the development of the Latin grammar school, the academy, or the high school.
2. Make a study of the aims of secondary education in this country as expressed at different periods in its development and note any changes that may appear.
3. Compare the aims and curriculums of the early academy with those of the late academy period. What, if any, differences do you find?
4. Compare the aims of the first high school in Boston with the aims and functions of secondary education as stated by Inglis.
5. What were the probable desirable results upon public secondary schools of the college accrediting system of the Middle West and what were the probable disadvantages?

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CHAPTER II

THE PRESENT STATUS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN RURAL AND VILLAGE COMMUNITIES

One of the most significant developments in education in the United States in the twentieth century was the extension of public secondary education into rural and village communities. It has been one phase of the movement to democratize public secondary education, to make it accessible to all pupils of secondary-school age. It has been in part both cause and effect of the growing idea that a secondary-school training is desirable for all boys and girls. In this chapter certain of the more prominent characteristics of rural and village high schools are presented as a foundation for later discussions.

The bulk of the literature on problems of public secondary education has heretofore been with reference to conditions as they exist in urban centers, in the larger high schools. Several writers within the last two years have mentioned the small high school in terms of a pupil enrollment of 250 to 300 pupils. They did not reach down to the small high school as it exists. They have, in other words, used the term small high school for an institution so large as to be beyond the pale of possibility for over four-fifths of the high schools of the country. Few high schools having any considerable proportion of their enrollment made up of boys and girls from rural and village communities are so large.

The size of rural and village high schools.—For the United States as a whole, a little more than 60 per cent of the high schools had in 1923-24 an enrollment of 100

pupils or less. Only 20 per cent of the high schools in the country enrolled more than 200 pupils each.[1] A study[2] of rural and semirural high schools of the United States in 1923-24 based upon 285 rural high schools distributed over forty-seven states and 125 semirural high schools in forty-one states showed that those schools fell largely in a group enrolling fewer than seventy pupils.[3] The median enrollment for the rural high schools was forty-five with only one-fourth having eighty pupils or more. The median enrollment for the semirural schools was seventy with one-fourth enrolling 125 or more pupils.

Data on public high schools from the reports of individual states show almost identical figures. For Montana in 1922 the median enrollment for all high schools was approximately thirty-eight pupils and for Virginia thirty-five. In Ohio in 1923-24 over 45 per cent of all the high-schools had enrollments of fifty or fewer pupils, with a median of fifty-five. Of the 662 four-year high schools in Indiana in 1921-22, one-third enrolled fifty or fewer pupils and three-fifths seventy-five or fewer. Over 60 per cent of the high schools of California enrolled fewer than 200 pupils each in 1923. In New York (1920-21) of the 607 high schools in centers of less than 4,500 population the median enrollment was approximately forty-five pupils per school with three-fourths of the schools enrolling fewer than eighty-five. In Iowa (1921-22) the median enrollment in high-school departments in consolidated schools in rural and village communities was forty-five with a middle 50

[1] Frank M. Phillips, "Statistics of Public High Schools, 1923-24," Bulletin No. 40, United States Bureau of Education (1925).

[2] E. N. Ferriss, "The Rural High School: Its Organization and Curriculum," Bulletin No. 10, United States Bureau of Education (1925).

[3] In this study for purposes of classification the rural high school was defined as one with 50 per cent or more of its pupils from farm homes and the semirural as a school with from 10 to 49 per cent of its enrollment from farm homes.

percentile range of twenty-nine to sixty-four pupils. For Kansas (1919-20) the median enrollment for rural high schools was forty-five pupils with a middle 50 percentile range of twenty-one to fifty pupils.

Number of years' work offered.—In 1917-18 practically 76 per cent of all high schools in the country offered four years of secondary-school work. Of the 285 rural high schools considered in the study previously referred to, 77 per cent were four-year schools. Of the semirural schools 88 per cent were four-year schools. The *New York Rural School Survey* showed that of the 607 high schools in centers under 4,500, 68 per cent gave four years of accredited work while approximately 80 per cent offered four years of high-school training. Thus it seems evident that in the neighborhood of 80 per cent of all the high schools which serve rural and village communities are four-year schools.

Location of small high schools.—The major proportion of high schools serving rural communities are situated in villages. Of the rural high schools [4] approximately 41 per cent were situated in the open country, 22 per cent in hamlets or unincorporated villages and the remainder in incorporated centers. Of the semirural high schools, 92 per cent were situated in incorporated villages and 8 per cent in hamlets or unincorporated villages. In New York State in 1920-21, 80 per cent of the high schools in places under 4,500 were situated in centers of 1,500 or less, 40 per cent of them being in rural or unincorporated centers.[5]

The typical small high school.—The typical small high school may probably be regarded as one staffed by three to five instructors including the principal. The median

[4] E. N. Ferriss, "The Rural High School: Its Organization and Curriculum," Bulletin No. 10, United States Bureau of Education (1925).

[5] E. N. Ferriss, "The Rural High School," *Rural School Survey of New York State*, Vol. 7, pp. 14-15.

rural high school in the study "The Rural High School: Its Curriculum and Organization" had three and one-half teachers with the middle 50 per cent ranging from two to five and one-half. For the semirural schools the median number of teachers was four and one-half with the middle 50 per cent ranging from the two and one-half to six and one-half. In Kansas in 1919-20, for approved rural high schools, the median number of teachers per school was three and one-half with a middle 50 percentile range of three to four teachers. For second- and third-class high schools in North Dakota in 1920-21, the median number of teachers per school was three and one-half with a range for the middle 50 per cent of two to four and one-half. In New York State in 1920-21 the average number of teachers for four-year schools with fewer than fifty pupils enrolled was three; for all high schools in centers under 4,500 approximately four and one-half. In California the number of teachers per school runs larger, 49 per cent of the high schools having from one to ten teachers and only 14.5 per cent having five or fewer.[6]

Training, experience, and tenure of the teachers.—The amount of training possessed by teachers in the small high schools varies for the different states but in general is less than that of the teachers in the city high schools. The New York survey showed that in 1920-21, 62 per cent of the high-school staff in schools in centers under 4,500 held college or university degrees. In Montana for 1921-22, 76 per cent of all the high-school teachers in the state were reported as having four years or more of academic training above the high school. In high schools in villages of the third-class districts, however, the percentage having such training was only 62. In North Dakota in 1920-21, 70 per cent of the instructors in second- and third-class high schools held college or university degrees. According to

[6] "Report of the Committee of Fifteen," California High School Teachers Association (1923), p. 39.

C. J. Anderson,[7] in Wisconsin high schools of two to five teachers, 21 per cent were graduates of colleges or universities and 77 per cent were normal-school graduates. In schools of six or more teachers, the percentage of college or university graduates ran from 31 in schools of six teachers to 64 per cent in schools of eleven to fifteen teachers and 69 per cent in high schools of over fifteen teachers.

The Texas Survey showed that in Texas high schools, classes one to four inclusive, all high schools with ten or fewer teachers, the percentage holding college or university degrees ran for women instructors, in the classes named, from 34 per cent in class one to 58 per cent in class four and for men teachers from 19 per cent in class one to 51 per cent in class four. In the large high schools the percentage for women holding degrees ran from 83 in class five, more than ten teachers, excluding cities, to 86 per cent in class six, high schools in first-class cities; for men teachers the percentages were 69 and 73 per cent respectively.[8] The statistics available indicate that the training of the teachers in small high schools is generally considerably less than it is in the high schools in urban centers.

In small high schools the total number of years of teaching experience and number of years in a particular school are less than in the large high schools. In New York in 1920-21 the median amount of experience of teachers in the small high schools was slightly over three years. The percentage of teachers who had taught two years or less in the community in which they were at the time of the report was 75 while over 49 per cent were teaching their first year in the community. In Wisconsin [9] in 1920-21 the median amount of experience of all high-school teachers of the

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[7] C. J. Anderson, *The Status of Teachers in Wisconsin* (Department of Public Instruction, 1923), pp. 86-93.

[8] C. H. Judd, "Secondary Education," *Texas Educational Survey Report* (1924), Vol. 3, p. 83.

[9] Anderson, *op. cit.*, pp. 105-112.

state was six years. For schools of two to six teachers it was four years; for schools with seven to fifteen teachers it was five; and for schools of more than fifteen teachers it was eight years. In two-teacher high schools approximately 27 per cent of the instructors had had less than two years of teaching experience, and over one-half of them were new each year. Only slightly over 3 per cent had been in the community five years or more. In three-teacher schools almost 60 per cent left by the end of the second year. In high schools of eleven to fifteen teachers over 12 per cent and in schools with more than fifteen teachers, 29 per cent had been in the school over five years. In Texas the median amount of experience in high schools of the first four classes, one to ten teachers, was three years for women and slightly less than three years for men. In the larger high schools the median experience for women teachers was from four years in class five to seven in class six and for men four and eight years respectively. In California the percentage of high-school instructors teaching their first year was in the small schools 16.4, in median schools 6.9, and in large schools 1.5. In small high schools 53.3 per cent had had less than five years' teaching experience as compared with 28 per cent for high schools of medium size, and 11.7 per cent for large high schools.[10]

One of the serious problems in the small high schools of the country is the rapid turnover of the teaching staff. The large percentage of new teachers each year, either without teaching experience or new to the community, makes it difficult to develop a consistent policy of organization and instruction or to realize desirable returns from supervision.

Organization of the school day and the teaching load. —The prevailing organization of the school day in the rural and village high schools is one of eight forty-minute periods.

[10] "Report of the Committee of Fifteen," California High School Teachers Association (1923), p. 55.

A small proportion of the schools have seven forty-five-minute periods, and a still smaller percentage, usually schools offering less than four years of work, have over eight periods often of thirty or thirty-five minutes each.

In recent years various agencies have operated to standardize the teaching load of high-school instructors particularly in the number of periods of teaching a day. The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools has recommended five periods a day with a possible maximum of six for schools holding membership in the association. Various states have set up as standards five or six periods of teaching a day.

In high schools with four or fewer teachers available data indicate that the median teaching load in number of periods is over six with an additional period given to supervision of the study hall. Almost one-fourth of the teachers do seven or more periods of teaching. In schools with five to ten teachers the median teaching load is slightly less than six periods with an additional period in study-hall supervision. In the larger schools approximately one teacher in seven has a teaching load of more than six periods a day.

In the small high school the principal devotes a large proportion of his time to classroom instruction. The typical principal gives from three to six periods to teaching and one period additional to study-hall supervision. In the smaller schools a considerable number of principals teach practically full time.

Size of classes.—The classes in the small high school naturally run smaller than in urban high schools. For rural high schools the median class contained approximately eleven pupils and for semirural high schools seventeen pupils.[11] In Connecticut the median class in schools with

[11] E. N. Ferriss, "The Rural High School: Its Organization and Curriculum," Bulletin No. 10, United States Bureau of Education (1925), p. 7.

an enrollment under 100 had ten pupils.[12] In New York the median class in schools with an enrollment under fifty had seven pupils and in schools with an enrollment over fifty but less than 100, twelve pupils.[13] In Massachusetts the median class for schools with an enrollment under 200 was 12.5 pupils.[14] For California in schools enrolling 1 to 100 pupils the median was 11.3, and in schools enrolling 101 to 200 it was 15.1.[15]

Number of subjects handled by the instructor.—In terms of number of pupil-hours of instruction, the instructor in the small high school has a comparatively light load as compared with the teacher in the urban high school. His work is made more difficult, however, because of the wider range of subjects in which he gives instruction. In New York State the median number of different subjects handled by the instructor in the small high school was 3.3; for the teachers reporting in the study on the organization and curriculum of the rural high school it was 3.6 subjects. More than 27 per cent of the teachers taught four or more different subjects daily. In Connecticut in schools with fewer than 100 pupils enrolled, 41 per cent of the teachers were giving instruction in more than three different subjects. A study by P. W. Hutson[16] of 270 science teachers of Minnesota for 1921-22 showed that the modal number of different subjects handled by science teachers in high-school departments of state-graded schools was four, and in high schools of ten or fewer teachers the modal number was three. In the former type of schools,

[12] Jesse B. Davis, *Organization and Administration of High Schools in the State of Connecticut* (1921), pp. 4-5.

[13] E. N. Ferriss, "The Rural High School," *Rural School Survey of New York State,* Vol. 7, pp. 44-45.

[14] "Report on High Schools for the Year 1917," Bulletin No. 5, Massachusetts Board of Education (1918).

[15] "Report of the Committee of Fifteen," California High School Teachers Association (1923), p. 41.

[16] P. W. Hutson, "High School Science Teachers," *Educational Administration and Supervision,* Vol. 9 (October, 1923), pp. 423-438.

over 33 per cent were giving instruction in five or more subjects as were over 8 per cent of the teachers in the latter type of school. For all high schools of Wisconsin [17] approximately 23 per cent of the instructors in academic subjects were giving instruction in three or more subjects and 9 per cent were teaching four or more subjects daily.

In the small high schools many teachers give instruction either wholly or in part outside the fields which they have prepared to teach. Sixteen per cent of the teachers in rural high schools and 12 per cent of those in semirural schools were giving no instruction in subjects for the teaching of which they had made special preparation. Sixty-eight and 50 per cent respectively were instructing part-time in subjects for the teaching of which they had made no special preparation.[18] In New York small high schools 13 per cent of the teachers were giving instruction in no subjects representing their major fields of preparation.

Program of studies and the curriculum organization.—The program of studies and the curriculum organization in the small high school are not the only criteria of the educational opportunities afforded its pupils. They are, however, major factors. While equipment, methods of instruction, the nature and range of extraclass activities, the type of school government, and other phases of the school's activities play important rôles; the subjects offered represent probably the best single index of the extent to which the school is meeting the present-day needs of pupils. The program of studies indicates in a fairly definite manner how far it has gone in recognizing the complex demands of life and the needs of the heterogeneous high-school pupil population of to-day. It reflects the conception of secondary education in the small high school.

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[17] C. J. Anderson, *The Status of Teachers in Wisconsin*, pp. 145-149.

[18] E. N. Ferriss, "The Rural High School: Its Organization and Curriculum," Bulletin No. 10, United States Bureau of Education (1925).

Traditional nature of the curriculum.—Although there are many exceptions represented by individual schools throughout the country; in general, the program of studies and the organization of curriculums in small high schools are of the traditional types. The work of those schools is still characteristic of that carried on by the high school when it served the needs of a comparatively limited and select group of pupils. Generally speaking, tradition has had such a strong influence upon them as to make practically impossible their reorganization into genuinely democratic institutions suited to the most common educational needs of all children of secondary-school age. Limited as the average rural and village high school is in the number of subjects it can offer in its program, its energy has been in large measure consumed in its effort to meet the requirements of higher institutions of learning. In keeping the door to higher education open to the relatively small proportion of its pupils who desire to enter those institutions, it has been compelled to neglect the development in any adequate fashion of the educational activities suited to the majority of its pupils—those who do not go beyond the high school. As a result it has too frequently functioned but very imperfectly in training its youth for intelligent participation in the significant activities of a twentieth-century democratic society.

The curriculum core.—In the larger proportion of small high schools the core of all curriculums may be described in terms of ancient and medieval history, languages, and mathematics. These represent the required subjects *de luxe*. A study of 184 small high schools of New York showed that on the average, including English, 44 per cent of the pupil's time in high school was devoted to the study of language and literature. Twenty-one per cent of his time was given to the study of foreign language and 18 per cent to the study of mathematics. To mathematics and foreign languages together he gave 39 per cent of his time

as compared with a total of 23 per cent devoted to all the social and natural sciences. Agriculture, home-making, and the shop subjects received a total of 3 per cent of the time given to education by the pupils of those schools. In those same schools less than one out of three of those who entered remained to graduate and only one out of nine of those who entered continued their training in a college or university.

The recent Texas Survey shows similar conditions in the high schools of that state. "Algebra is the outstanding subject in the number of pupils studying it. When it is compared with American and United States history combined, its enrollment is nearly four times as great. There were more than four times as many studying algebra as were in the classes in civics and government, and more than five times as many as there were in physiology and hygiene. In the high schools in common school districts, which are distinctly rural, there were approximately three times as many registrations in algebra as in agriculture." [19]

With regard to the curriculums in the rural high schools of Oklahoma the report of the state survey contains the following comment: "Curricula being administered in the rural high schools of Oklahoma are poorly adapted to the needs of the students. The favorite subjects are Latin, ancient history, medieval history, English, and mathematics." [20]

Subjects offered.—A study [21] of the programs of studies and curriculums of small high schools of the United States for the school year of 1922-23 showed that the typical program was made up of English, mathematics, foreign lan-

[19] G. A. Works, *Texas Educational Survey Report* (1924), Vol 8, p. 83.

[20] "Public Education in Oklahoma," United States Bureau of Education (1922), p. 259.

[21] E. N. Ferriss, "The Rural High School: Its Organization and Curriculum," Bulletin, No. 10, United States Bureau of Education (1925), Ch. viii.

guage, history and civics, natural science, and home economics. As based upon the subjects offered by 50 per cent or more of the 283 rural high schools representing forty-seven states, the program contained sixteen different subjects, counting each year of English as a separate subject. Practically all the schools offered a year's work in English for each year of work done in the school. Nearly all offered elementary algebra and plane geometry. Seventy-one per cent gave courses in ancient and medieval, and modern history and 12 per cent in general or world history. Practically all schools with three- or four-year courses gave American history and 64 per cent reported civics as a separate course for either one-half year or a year. Latin 1 and general science were in the programs of 70 per cent of the schools, physics in 66 per cent, Latin 2 in 65 per cent, home economics in 62 per cent, and intermediate or advanced algebra in 55 per cent. The inclusion of every subject offered by at least 25 per cent of the rural high schools showed no significant expansion in the range of subject-matter fields represented in the program. The gains made represented mainly additional units of work in mathematics, foreign languages, natural science, and social science. In this additional group of subjects, contained in the programs of 25 but less than 50 per cent of the schools, were, in the foreign language group, French 1 and French 2. In the field of mathematics were added arithmetic and commercial arithmetic, and solid geometry. Chemistry, biology, physiology, and physical geography were added to the natural science group. The offering in social science was increased by the addition of economics, community civics, and sociology or social problems. The subjects representing new subject-matter fields were agriculture found in the programs of 44 per cent of the schools, bookkeeping in 38 per cent, vocal music in 32 per cent, and manual training in 32 per cent.

The data for all rural high schools with regard to agri-

culture and home economics did not show in what proportion of the schools offering such subjects they were given as vocational courses. Of fifty-four rural high schools visited by the writer, representing eighteen states, 50 per cent were giving work in agriculture, one-half of these giving courses in vocational agriculture. Sixty-three per cent of the schools had courses in home economics, one-fourth of them being vocational courses in home-making. These fifty-four schools were small four-year high schools and were probably typical of such schools throughout the country.

A comparison of rural with semirural high schools, those having less than 50 per cent of their pupils from farm homes, representing in the main the larger village high schools, showed but minor differences either in the range or nature of the subjects offered. A larger percentage of the latter offered foreign languages, advanced mathematics, and such subjects in natural science as chemistry and biology. Economics and community civics were offered more often by these schools than by the rural high schools as were the commercial subjects, bookkeeping, typewriting, and shorthand. Only 19 per cent of the rural high schools gave Latin 3 as contrasted with 53 per cent of the semirural schools and only 12 per cent gave Latin 4 as contrasted with 47 per cent for the semirural schools. Of the rural high schools 31 and 30 per cent offered French 1 and French 2 respectively as compared with 55 and 53 per cent for the semirural schools. Approximately 20 per cent more of the semirural than of the rural high schools gave advanced algebra; 24 per cent more gave solid geometry; and the percentage offering trigonometry was over twice that for the rural high schools. Other subjects offered by a larger percentage of the semirural schools were economics, community civics, typewriting, and shorthand. Subjects offered by a significantly larger percentage of the rural high schools than of the semirural were agriculture given by 44 per cent of the rural as compared with 26 per cent for

the semirural, and general science reported by 70 per cent of the rural high schools as contrasted with 43 per cent for the semirural schools.

The table on pages 30, 31, and 32 shows the program of studies of small high schools. The percentages are computed in each case on the basis of the total number of schools represented. This gives the percentage of communities in which the different subjects were available to pupils. Attention should be called to the fact, however, that the basis used does not show the actual percentage of three- and four-year schools offering those subjects ordinarily given in the third and fourth years, with the exception of Illinois where all schools were four-year schools. In the other groups the actual percentage would in each instance be somewhat larger for the subjects in the upper years if computed for three- and four-year schools only.

The report of the Committee of Fifteen on Secondary Education in California [22] shows programs of studies in the small high schools of that state very similar to those already considered. The subjects offered by 50 per cent of the high schools with an enrollment of 100 or fewer were: English (four years), elementary algebra, plane geometry, general science, chemistry, ancient, medieval and modern history, United States history, Spanish (two years), Latin (two years), mechanical drawing, domestic science, domestic art, bookkeeping, shorthand, and typing. Additional subjects offered in schools with an enrollment of 101 to 200 were: intermediate algebra, physics, biology, freehand drawing, and business arithmetic.

Naturally the smaller the high school the more limited its offering in subjects. In the number of subject-matter fields, however, the differences between smaller and larger schools are, in general, not as significant as one might expect. In the larger rural and village high schools there

[22] "Report of the Committee of Fifteen," California High School Teachers Association (1923), p. 42.

TABLE I.—PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOLS OFFERING CERTAIN HIGH-SCHOOL SUBJECTS, RANKED ACCORDING TO PERCENTAGE OF SCHOOLS IN A GROUP OF RURAL HIGH SCHOOLS OFFERING EACH SUBJECT

Subjects	283 Rural High Schools in 47 States	121 Semirural High Schools in 41 States	609 Small High Schools in New York (1919-20)	143 High Schools, North Dakota (1920-21)	460 Township and Community High Schools, Illinois (1922-23) [1]
English 1	100	100	100	100	100
English 2	97	98	98	98	100
English 3	89	91	90	68	100
English 4	78	85	83	61	100
Elementary Algebra	97	100	99	98	100
Plane Geometry	94	95	88	87	95
American History	87	88	76	83	98
Ancient History	71	81	78	84 [2]	80
Medieval and Modern History	71	69	..	60	91
Latin 1	70	86	95	64	85
General Science	70	43	3	46	60
Physics	66	71	69	35	81
Latin 2	65	83	93	52	82
Civics	64	63	89	80	93
Home Economics and Homemaking	62	55	11 [3]	69	58
Intermediate and Advanced Algebra	55	74	76	19	73
Chemistry	48	59	24	38	42

TABLE I.—*Continued*

Arithmetic and Commercial Arithmetic	48	45	25	62	64
Agriculture and Vocational Agriculture	44	26	8[3]	24	26
Biology	44	56	91	..	17
Economics	44	57	3	82	41
Community Civics	38	55	..	..	..
Bookkeeping	38	47	26	41	58
Solid Geometry	36	60	21	13	57
Manual Training	32	38	.5	61	31
French 1	31	55	75	38	32
French 2	30	53	69	26	32
Vocal Music	37	36	24	25	17
Sociology	30	28	..	86[4]	9
Physiology	30	22	6	24	50
Physical Geography	25	21	17	25	43
Typewriting	22	41	16	36	41
Botany	22	22	5	38	48
Latin 3	19	53	56	10	55
Shorthand	19	40	24	24	37
Instrumental Music	18	21	..	..	..

[1] Computed from figures given by Earl A. Collins, in his unpublished study, "A Survey of the Township and Community High Schools of Illinois," 1923.

[2] North Dakota gives these subjects as general history 1 and general history 2.

[3] For New York the percentages of Home-making and Agriculture are for Vocational Home-making and Vocational Agriculture only.

[4] This subject is called social problems in the "Fourteenth Report of the High-School Inspector of North Dakota." The number of schools offering the subject increased from five in 1919-20 to 123 in 1920-21, due to the passage of a state law requiring it for graduation from high school.

TABLE I.—*Continued*

Subjects	283 Rural High Schools in 47 States	121 Semirural High Schools in 41 States	609 Small High Schools in New York (1919-20)	143 High Schools, North Dakota (1920-21)	460 Township and Community High Schools, Illinois (1922-23)
Drawing	16	11	85[5]	18	10
English History	14	22	36	5	16
Latin 4	12	47	34	6	39
General History	12	7	..	[6]	2
Hygiene and Sanitation	11	17	..	..	..
Commercial Geography	11	6	24	27	41
Trigonometry	10	22	10	2	7
Psychology	10	17	..	76	..
General Mathematics	10	16	..	..	..
Spanish 1	9	7	11	7	7
Spanish 2	9	7	8	3	7
Principles of Teaching	8	13	..	70[7]	10
Zoölogy	7	10	2	16	52
Mechanical Drawing	6	6	20	29	15
Commercial Law	6	4	3	26	34
Modern History	6	..	8	..	63
Norse 1	..	..	..	7	..
Norse 2	..	..	..	5	..

[5] The percentages given are estimates, as three different courses in drawing are offered in many of the small high schools of New York.

[6] *See* figures for ancient and medieval and modern history for North Dakota.

[7] In North Dakota this is given as a course in school management.

are more subjects offered in each of the departments. The study of rural and semirural high schools by the writer, and previously referred to, showed that, if only those subjects given by at least 50 per cent of the schools were considered, the program of studies of the rural high schools contained sixteen subjects, counting each year of English as a separate subject. On the same basis the program of the semirural school had twenty-three subjects, an addition of seven subjects. In comparison with the rural high school the semirural school lost general science and gained chemistry, biology, economics, community civics, solid geometry, French 1 and French 2, and Latin 3. On the same 50 per cent basis the California high schools with an enrollment of 100 or fewer had a program containing twenty-one subjects and the schools with an enrollment between 101 and 200 a program of twenty-six subjects.

Variations in position of subjects in the program.—There is considerable variation in practice in different schools and in different sections of the country as to the year in the course in which subjects are usually offered. Mathematics and language, including English, show the greatest amount of uniformity, although even they show some variability. Interesting differences are found between strictly rural high schools and village high schools, especially with regard to foreign languages. In the semirural, usually village, Latin is quite generally begun in the first year and French in the second. In the rural high schools a significant number do not offer either Latin or French until the second or third year. Over 16 per cent of the semirural schools reported general mathematics as the first course in mathematics and 10 per cent of the rural high schools also delayed elementary algebra until the second year, offering for the first year either general mathematics or arithmetic.

In all small high schools there is much variation as to the year in which certain subjects are given. Biology

finds a place in every year as do physical geography and botany. Medieval and modern history and community civics also occur in every year of the program. Other subjects showing marked fluctuation in position are physiology, English history, commercial geography, arithmetic, and commercial or business arithmetic.

Tendencies in curriculum offerings.—The study of the programs of small high schools reveals some interesting tendencies in the curriculum offerings. In the natural sciences 70 per cent of the rural high schools and 43 per cent of the semirural schools reported general science as the first course and biology as predominantly the second course in science. Hygiene and sanitation have gained a place throughout the four years of a small percentage of both types of schools. Economics in one or both of the two upper years was reported by 44 per cent of the rural and 57 per cent of the semirural high schools, and community civics by 38 per cent of the former and 55 per cent of the latter. Sociology under such titles as sociology, rural sociology, problems of democracy, and social problems was taught in 30 per cent of the rural and 28 per cent of the semirural schools. This indication of the growth of the last two subjects, comparatively new in high-school curriculums, is further substantiated by the findings of a study of the status of the social sciences in the high schools of the North Central Association.[23] This investigation included 475 high schools, 122 of which had enrollments under 150 pupils. Of the group of 122 small high schools, 54 per cent offered economics, 31 per cent community civics, and 61 per cent sociology.

Other new subjects beginning to occupy more or less prominent positions in the programs of small high schools

[23] Walter S. Monroe and I. O. Foster, "The Status of the Social Sciences in the High Schools of the North Central Association," Bulletin No. 13, Bureau of Educational Research, University of Illinois (1922).

are home economics reported by 62 per cent of the rural and 55 per cent of the semirural schools, and agriculture reported by 44 per cent of the former and by 26 per cent of the latter. General mathematics has also gained a foothold in 10 per cent of the rural and in 16 per cent of the semirural high schools. Certain commercial subjects as typewriting, bookkeeping, and shorthand are found in significant percentages of small high schools, particularly in those situated in villages. While all data on the programs of subjects offered by the small high school show clearly their traditional nature, in the main, the tendencies pointed out are refreshing and indicate that a considerable percentage of these schools are making some progress in adjusting their work to the needs of the pupil, the community, and modern life.

Types of curriculums.—The smaller the school the more traditional its curriculums. In the majority of small schools the constants for all curriculums are almost without exception the formal, disciplinary subjects. The electives in one curriculum are too frequently but the subjects representing the differences between the requirements of that curriculum and those of another rather than subjects suited to the appreciational and other needs and interests of the pupil. Of 165 curriculums reported by high schools with fewer than five instructors, 134, or 81 per cent, were of the traditional academic type as general, Latin, classical, college preparatory, scientific, and academic. Only thirty-one, or 19 per cent, were of the new or practical type as commercial, home economics, agricultural, etc. Of the 207 curriculums reported by high schools with five to ten instructors, 119, or 57 per cent, were of the traditional academic type and eighty-eight, or 43 per cent, were of the new or practical type. Twenty-four per cent more of the curriculums in the larger high schools were of the practical type than in the smaller high schools. The difference probably should not be interpreted as meaning that the

smaller school is less willing to adjust its curriculums to meet modern needs, but rather that, in the face of traditional standards and requirements, it is less able to expand in the direction of the newer sorts of educational activities.

TABLE II.—CURRICULUMS OFFERED IN SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS

Type of Curriculum	One- to Four-Teacher Schools	Five- to Ten-Teacher Schools
General	41	37
Latin	38	18
Classical	10	11
Academic	7	11
College preparatory	14	18
Scientific	24	24
Commercial	5	34
Home economics	18	23
Agricultural	5	16
Vocational	2	9
Industrial arts	0	3
Practical arts	0	2
Domestic arts	1	1
Total academic	134	119
Per cent academic	81	57
Total nonacademic	31	88
Per cent nonacademic	19	43

Requirements for accrediting high schools.—A report of the Bureau of Education [24] shows that the requirements of state departments of education and state universities for accredited high schools in 1922 were commonly in terms of English, mathematics, foreign language, the natural sciences, and the social sciences. Five states, Connecticut, New Hampshire, New Jersey,[25] New York, and Rhode Island, made no specific requirements in terms of subjects. Massachusetts prescribed only three units of English and permitted limited election with respect to the other twelve

[24] George F. Zook, "Accredited Secondary Schools in the United States," Bulletin No. 11, Bureau of Education (1922).

[25] New Jersey requires in all approved and registered high schools courses in community civics and problems in American democracy.

units necessary for graduation. Iowa, Nevada, North Dakota, South Dakota, and Wisconsin had a partial group elective system requiring specifically, with the exception of Iowa which required one unit of social science, only English and mathematics. California required only two units in English, one in history, and one in science, but required that "all curricula be so organized as to include two majors of at least three units each." Thirty-nine of the states required three units of English, three required four units, and three required only two units. The requirements in mathematics ranged from no requirement

TABLE III.—NUMBER OF STATES MAKING DEFINITE REQUIREMENTS IN CERTAIN SUBJECTS

Number of Units Required	English	Mathematics	Foreign Language	Natural Science	Social Science
0	0	1	13	22	14
1	0	2	0	16	19
2	3	23	21	3	7
2½	0	12	0	0	0
3	39	4	2	0	1
4	3	0	3	0	0
5	0	0	2	0	0

in one state to three units in four states. Two states required one unit, twenty-three states two units, and twelve states two and one-half units. Thirteen states required no foreign language, twenty-one states two units, two states three units, and five states either required or recommended from four to five units of foreign language. In natural science twenty-two states made no requirements, sixteen required one unit, and three states required two units. In social science fourteen states made no specific requirements, nineteen required one unit, and eight required two or more units. Roughly, the most common requirements of the several states may be summarized as three units of English, two units of mathematics, two of

foreign language, and one of social science. Natural science was not definitely required by the majority of states.

Quotations from recent state bulletins on secondary education with reference to the requirements for graduation from high school indicate further the nature of the requirements and the variation among states.

. . . it is recommended that no diploma be granted unless a pupil has acquired at least 45 counts in not more than three subjects, of which English shall be one. Of the remaining counts, at least 20 should be in two subjects. . . . The aforegoing courses (community civics and Problems in American Democracy) shall be given in all approved and registered high schools and taken by all pupils enrolled in the years in which the subjects are required to be taught as aforesaid.[26]

The sixteen units required of all graduates shall be distributed as follows: English—4; mathematics (for non-vocational courses)—2; history (American history)—1 unit; civics and Problems of American Democracy, 1 unit—2; science (human biology)—1; electives—7.

It is urgently recommended that pupils who expect to go to college be offered three units in mathematics instead of two and two units in science instead of one.

No credit shall be given for instruction in a foreign language for less than two years.[27]

Each candidate for graduation (State High School Diploma) must present the following prescribed subjects and units: English, three units; mathematics, two units; history, two units; and science, two units.[28]

The following units are required for graduation from a standard school: English—4, mathematics—2, science—1, history—2, foreign language—2.[29]

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[26] "A Manual for High Schools," State of New Jersey (1922), pp. 24, 33.

[27] "Virginia Manual of Administration for High Schools" (1924), p. 13.

[28] "State Course of Study for High Schools of Louisiana" (1923), p. 75.

[29] "Courses of Study for the High Schools of North Carolina," p. 19.

Three units of English, which must include English 1, 2, 3 and 4, advanced U. S. history, civics, one-half unit of economics, one unit of science, one unit of mathematics, and one unit of physical education, are constants for the pupil. No pupil will be graduated from any state high school without successfully having completed these subjects.[20]

The California State Board of Education requires for graduation from high school two units of English, one unit of history and civics, and one unit of a laboratory science. This state has taken an advanced step in its requirement that all curriculums be so organized as to include two majors of at least three units each, and in its suggestion that each pupil's work be determined with specific reference to his needs and purposes.

The course of instruction for each student who is a candidate for graduation shall be organized to include a subject or group of subjects, the purpose of which shall be to prepare such student for a vocation or for entrance to a higher institution of learning preparing for vocations. . . . Vocation is here used in the broad sense to designate an occupation or any purposeful social and civic activity.[21]

Requirements for graduation.—The requirements that small high schools themselves most often set up for graduation are very similar to those forming the basis for accrediting high schools in the several states but tend to be even more conservative. The majority of the schools require of all pupils for graduation, particularly in mathematics, more units than are necessary for meeting the demands of their state departments. Frequently these additional units are required to meet the entrance demands of certain higher institutions to which pupils from the school go. Sometimes they may be traced to the belief on the part of the principal and the teachers that such

[20] "North Dakota High School Manual" (1923), p. 10.

[21] Bulletin to High School Principals, California Commissioner of Secondary Schools (May 31, 1922).

subjects as foreign language and mathematics are essential to a standard high-school training.

A study of the subjects required for graduation in 313 small schools distributed over the United States supports the validity of the statements in the preceding paragraph. All the schools required at least three years of English and 87 per cent of them four years. It should be mentioned, however, that not every year of English represented in every case a full unit; the classes in the two

TABLE IV.—SUBJECTS REQUIRED FOR GRADUATION AS REPORTED IN 1923 BY 313 SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS DISTRIBUTED OVER THE UNITED STATES, AND AS REPORTED IN 1921 BY 385 SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK[1]

Subjects[2]	As Reported by 313 Small High Schools of the United States		As Reported by 385 Small High Schools of New York	
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent
English (4 years)	273	87	385	100
English (3 years)	40	13	...	...
Elementary Algebra	281	90	377	98
General Mathematics	32	10	...	...
Plane Geometry	267	85	361	94
Intermediate Algebra	88	28	51	13
American History	292	93	353	92
Civics	162	52	366	95
Ancient History	122	39	212	55
Medieval and Modern History	117	37	62	16[3]
Community Civics	79	25	...	...
Latin 1	88	28	141	37
Latin 2	85	27	132	34
General Science	130	41	...	...
Biology	81	26	364	95
Physics	137	44	224	58
Arithmetic	77	25	...	...
Home Economics (girls)	74	24	...	...

[1] E. N. Ferriss, "The Rural High School," *Rural School Survey of New York State*, Vol. 7, p. 150.

[2] With the exception of English (3 years) and general mathematics, subjects reported by less than 20 per cent of the schools are not included in the table.

[3] In New York State this course includes only modern history.

upper years often met but three or four times a week. Ninety per cent required a unit of elementary algebra and 10 per cent a course in general mathematics. Plane geometry was necessary for graduation in 85 per cent of the schools, intermediate algebra in 28 per cent, and arithmetic in 25 per cent. Practically all (93 per cent) required American history, 52 per cent civics, and 25 per cent community civics. Thirty-nine per cent required ancient history, and 37 per cent a unit of medieval and modern history. Small percentages required English history, economics or sociology, or both. Forty-one per cent required general science, 26 per cent biology, and 44 per cent physics. Botany and chemistry were reported as required subjects by a small percentage of the schools. Latin 1 and Latin 2 were required respectively by 28 and 27 per cent; and French 1 and French 2 were required by some schools. Twenty-four per cent required home economics for girls and 18 per cent agriculture for boys. These were usually schools in rural communities. Other subjects were occasionally on the lists of requirements.

Summary of the present status.—All available data indicate that the requirements for graduation from rural and village high schools are, in the main, in terms of subjects required for entrance to higher institutions of learning rather than in terms of educational materials offering the training making for intelligent participation on the part of the majority of high-school pupils in the significant activities of the general social, civic, and occupational life of to-day.

The formal nature of the programs of studies and the requirements for graduation in high schools is further emphasized by the results of recent surveys of state school systems. The summary of the Indiana Educational Commission with reference to the requirements of the high schools of that state is an example:

In most schools English is required in all four years of the course, though there is a distinct tendency in large schools to require only three units. American history is almost universally required in the third or fourth years, while civics is seldom found except as a part of American history; other forms of history are commonly offered and required in the second and third years. General science or botany is common in the first year and physics in the fourth year. In the practical arts, home economics is required in the first year by 23 per cent, agriculture in the first year by 9 per cent, and manual training in the first year by 14 per cent of all high schools.

Most significant, however, are the requirements as to algebra in the first and second years, geometry in the second and third years, and foreign language in the first and second years. Algebra is required during the first year by 93 per cent, during the second year by 56 per cent, and during the third year by seven per cent of all high schools. Geometry is required during the second year by 66 per cent of all high schools and during the third by 57 per cent. Foreign language study occupies an equally favored position. It is required during the first year by 71 per cent, during the second year in 72 per cent, and during the third year in 16 per cent of all high schools. In small high schools the foreign language offered and required is all but universally Latin . . . less than five per cent of these schools offering any other foreign language.

The common requirement in most high schools of algebra, geometry, and a foreign language is a survival of earlier times when attendance at high school meant primarily preparation for college, and when formal education was emphasized. The modern high school designed to meet the needs of children of varying types requires more leeway.[32]

Judd in his summing up of the situation as to the high-school curriculum in Texas and the subjects required writes: [33]

The aggregate of registrations in all sciences [natural] is less than the registration in the single subject algebra. . . . By put-

[32] *Public Education in Indiana* (1923), pp. 105-106.

[33] C. H. Judd, "Secondary Education," *Texas Educational Survey Report*, Vol. 3, pp. 91-92.

ting this subject into the curriculum as an absolute requirement in the first year, a great many pupils who fail are prevented from getting into courses in history and science which from every point of view will be more useful in later life and are just as good for general mental training as algebra. . . . There is more stress on Latin and Spanish than on literature in the vernacular.

"When we turn to the group of history courses, we find that Texas seems to be greatly attached to the ancient and medieval periods and less concerned with the modern and American history and civics."

From whatever angle one approaches the question of programs of studies and curriculums in small high schools he is driven to but one conclusion—they are as a whole formal and traditional. The smaller the school the more formal, the more traditional they are. Although many new subjects have gained recognition in the programs of a relatively small percentage of these schools, they have entered haphazardly as it were and are usually but appendages to the old group of subjects still regarded as basic to a secondary-school training. Whatever may be the philosophy accepted in theory in the small high school, practice is still following in large measure the shadow of formal discipline through the study of a group of favored, time-honored subjects. Although the development of means of communication, of industrial arts, commerce, agriculture, and their handmaiden science has multiplied and revolutionized the intellectual, economic, and vocational activities of men; although the responsibilities and rights of citizenship have become the possessions of all; and although modern psychology points out clearly the great differences existing among human beings in abilities, aptitudes, and interests, and emphasizes the specific nature of learning, we continue to give major emphasis in our small high schools to subject-matter materials related in no direct or vital way to the most significant activities of life to-day as they will be engaged in by the vast majority. We still attempt to educate all youth effectively by having them

travel the same road, both the road and the means of travel being in the main those of times long past. The traditional idea of a general high-school training aimed at no specific goals and with no definite bearing upon the demands of the time continues to control practice to an unwarranted degree.

The need of scientific study of secondary education in small communities.—The needs of a democracy, the facts of psychology and sociology, and the varying types of pupils in attendance upon a modern high school, all unite in demanding a reorganization of secondary-school curriculums and of the requirements for graduation. The urgent need of the small high school at the present time is the determination, with reference to the activities of life, and the standards and ideals that should accompany these activities, of the educational objectives that should guide its work and the instructional materials to be used as means in the attainment of those objectives. Without such objectives the content and organization of its curriculums, and its methods, must necessarily continue to be archaic, artificial, and formal. For urban secondary schools much has and is being done in the way of discovering and setting up the objectives in the direction of which their work shall function. For the small high school practically nothing has as yet been accomplished. Undoubtedly a great deal that is discovered in the study of the large urban high school and its work will be applicable to the work of the small high school; much will not. The specific educational objectives of each school will need to be determined in large part at least by the conditions under which it operates and by the needs of its pupils and the community which it serves.

Ultimately local principals and teachers, or groups of principals and teachers representing groups of neighboring high schools, must set up the specific objectives guiding the activities of their schools. In the meantime there

is need for scientific study by states or sections of states of the problems of secondary education in rural and village communities and the setting up of educational objectives based upon the actual demands of modern life in those states as made upon the vast majority of their citizens engaged in the activities of everyday life. The results of such studies should serve as guides and correctives for local studies. The educational opportunities offered by the small high school are necessarily limited in range and variety. It is highly essential, therefore, if such schools are to afford a democratic type of education, that their work be of such a nature as to meet in the most functional manner possible the educational needs of all children of high-school age in their communities as determined by those pupils' abilities, aptitudes, interests, and life purposes, and the significant activities of those pupils, of their communities, and of modern life.

Problems

1. Make a comparative study of the requirements of several different states for an accredited high school. What common characteristics do you find and what significant differences? What seems to be the basis of these requirements?
2. From state reports or other available sources collect data on the size of the high schools of three or four states and make a chart showing the relative proportion of schools with enrollments of 1 to 50 pupils, 51 to 100, 101 to 150, and 151 and over. From the standpoint of size which group of schools is most typical in each state?
3. Study carefully the school laws of two or more states as they have a bearing upon secondary education in small communities and make an analysis of the outstanding characteristics of those laws.
4. Select some phase of secondary education, such as training required of teachers, curriculums suggested or required by the state, requirements for graduation, etc., and study it with reference to its bearing upon the work of the small high school.

5. Collect data on the subjects offered, subjects required for graduation, and curriculum organization of two or more local high schools and compare them with the discussion in the preceding chapter.

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PART II

AIMS, OBJECTIVES, MATERIALS, AND MEANS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

CHAPTER III

METHODS OF DETERMINING AND GROUPING EDUCATIONAL OBJECTIVES IN SECONDARY EDUCATION

The meaning of education.—In its broad sense education is the modification of individual behavior: it consists in the changes in the individual as a result of his reactions to his environment. It is the process of the individual's adjustment to the conditions of living. It is experience. In the narrow sense education is the modification through a controlled environment of individual behavior in desirable directions, desirable being interpreted in terms of changes in behavior promoting at all times the maximum of individual development and social adjustment. It is guided or directed experience. It is a matter of self-activity directed toward the attainment of certain goals, those goals being in harmony with the nature and needs of the individual on the one hand, and, on the other, with the demands of his physical and social environment. From the standpoint of the individual it is growth or development appropriate to his capacities, interests, and purposes; from the standpoint of society it is development in the direction of effective participation in group activities in accordance with desirable standards and ideals. One of the most important problems of the school at all levels is the amalgamation of individual and social needs into a unified educative process.

The responsibility of the secondary school.—The secondary school has as its responsibility the solution of this problem for the adolescent. Its task is the determination and direction of the education of children ranging ordi-

narily from twelve to eighteen, or, if the junior college is included, to twenty years of age. It must know the adolescent and the demands of society and utilize its knowledge in ordering its educational activities to meet the needs of both. In a democracy it should articulate closely with the elementary school whose pupils it receives and should in its organization, curriculum materials, methods, and general activities provide for the educational needs of all normal children of secondary-school age. Its task is not the selection of the most capable and the elimination of the less well endowed but the differentiation and distribution of its pupils according to abilities, aptitudes, and purposes; and the provision of types of educational opportunities suited to the various types of pupils found. As a social institution it should train each and every pupil in the most effective way possible to reach his maximum development as an individual and to make his adjustments to the social groups in whose activities he participates as a youth and will most likely participate as an adult. This includes also at all times the development of an understanding of and an insight into the nature of the physical world and its bearing upon the everyday activities of men.

The close relationship desirable between school and society.—To afford training of the character described means a continuous, vital relationship between the activities of the school and those of life. As the activities, standards, and ideals within the social environment change, the school must adjust its work to meet those changes. As other social agencies furnish in a satisfactory manner certain necessary or desirable phases of education, the school should relinquish responsibility for them. As new educational demands arise or as other agencies cease to meet those already present, the school should assume the task of meeting them. To make such adjustments requires on the part of the school administrators and instructors at all times a clear understanding as to the significant activities

of adults and also those of children of different ages, of the standards and ideals that control those activities, and of the desirable trends of progress in so far as these may be determined.

The tardiness of the school's adjustment.—Secondary schools have adjusted themselves very slowly and tardily to changes in society. In small high schools particularly there has been, with relatively minor exceptions, a very tardy and inadequate adjustment to changes in community and national needs or the new and expanding needs of a rapidly growing and ever more heterogeneous pupil population.

This lack of adaptation to the educational needs of the time has been due to several causes. The aims of the secondary school have been vague and indefinite and couched in such general terms as discipline, culture, and college preparation. Discipline has not been viewed with reference to power in the analysis and interpretation of existing life situations and problems but in terms of certain subjects. Culture has usually had a narrow connotation limited to knowledge in a group of subjects of long standing and of traditional values rather than a sympathetic understanding and appreciation of the values and relationships of human activities to-day. College preparation as an aim has too frequently only reinforced the position of the two preceding aims both of which it has incorporated.

The teachers and those directing the work of the small high school have been trained ordinarily in the subjects and according to the aims mentioned and have gone into the secondary schools naturally imbued with the idea that the materials in use in the high schools are the best. They have, true to their training, given their efforts in the main to maintaining the status quo, to building up a defense for traditional subjects, rather than to analyzing modern life and its needs and discovering educational materials

and methods most suitable for adolescent boys and girls and most effectively meeting the conditions that exist. They have tended to interpret the educative process as the acquirement of knowledge and have given but little attention to the utilitarian values of the information gained or to the development of either habits or desirable emotionalized attitudes and standards. Practically no attempts have been made to evaluate the elements of our social inheritance in the program of studies in terms of their functional worth in understanding and appreciating the important activities, attitudes, and problems of the present. Finally, the continuation of the old type of secondary education in the small high school has agreed with custom; it has been the path of least resistance.

The influence of tradition in setting up educational objectives.—Although the small high school has come to represent in its pupil population practically all social, economic, and intellectual levels, and in this respect has become democratic; although general mental discipline has received a blow from which it will never recover despite the frantic efforts of some to restore its vitality, mathematics, foreign languages (especially Latin), and ancient and medieval history furnish the basic subject-matter materials. Other subjects to be sure have from time to time been admitted into the program, usually through outside pressure, but have been subordinated to the traditional group and have been organized and presented in harmony with the aims and methods controlling that group. Hence they have undoubtedly not yielded the values they might otherwise have had. Because of the vague and formal nature of the aims controlling secondary education in the small high school but little has been done in the analysis of the activities, standards, and ideals of life or the capacities, interests, and purposes of adolescents and the determination of the specific goals or objectives toward which secondary education in small communities should be directed.

The specific nature of learning.—The psychology of learning shows rather conclusively that changes are specific, that one's behavior is modified in specific directions as a result of his reactions to specific situations. One does not learn in general but rather through specific experiences. That power or ability gained through one type of experiences does not result in general power or ability equally usable in experiences of all sorts is fairly well established. Successful behavior in one situation promises success in other situations according to the number of common elements in substance and procedure. One generalizes probably by reacting to a number of common elements in various experiences. In other words, the psychology of learning to-day supports the use of educational materials related definitely to the activities of the learner and of the society in which he lives. This clarifies the problem of secondary education by indicating the need of definite goals or objectives determined on the basis of life activities and the selection and ordering of subject matter for the attainment of those objectives definitely related to the significant activities of modern life.

Differences between individuals and between groups.—Sociology is analyzing more and more clearly human activities and the standards and ideals which control them. It is also showing the differences existing among the activities, standards, and ideals of different groups of individuals, social, economic, occupational, etc., and the need from the standpoint of education of recognizing those differences. Psychology has pointed out differences in capacity, aptitudes, and interests with regard to different individuals. Both show the necessity of analyzing life activities preliminary to setting up educational objectives. They emphasize the importance of specific objectives in the control of each educative act. They agree, though from different angles, with regard to the desirability of definite, concrete goals at all stages in education, the former by

showing the specific nature of learning and the latter by its insistence upon education based upon the conditions of modern life. Both require, if their contributions are to be utilized in school practice, a scientific procedure in the determination of educational objectives and in the building of curriculums for attaining them.

Scientific procedure in setting up objectives.—A scientific method of determining educational objectives in the secondary school must ultimately be based upon an analytical study of the activities of youth and of adult society and of the standards and ideals controlling those activities. In large measure to be most effective the secondary school must *upon* and *through* the activities and interests of youth build for the activities of adult life by amalgamating them in the activities of the school. The angle of approach should be that of individual and social achievements and needs rather than that of existing subjects or units of subject matter. Instead of beginning with Latin or ancient history, for example, and attempting to show what it is possible for those subjects to contribute, the scientific worker on curriculum problems will through an analysis of the language and civic activities and needs of modern society determine the educational objectives with respect to language and social science. He will then select and arrange tentatively the subject-matter materials best suited to meet those objectives effectively. With these tentatively chosen materials he will proceed in an experimental way to determine the soundness of his selection and to discover the most effective methods of utilizing them, rejecting or adopting on the basis of results.

A scientific viewpoint in curriculum building reduces curriculums and subjects to their rightful place—that of educational means, the raw materials of experience—rather than ends. It eliminates tradition, custom, and personal opinion as a basis for determining values, replaces them by analysis, by the collection, testing, and interpretation

of facts. By collective judgments in the evaluation of facts and principles it arrives at tentative principles of procedure. One of its most important instruments is the survey. Through the survey are discovered the existing activities of the members of society; the knowledges, abilities, habits, skills, etc., making up each activity; and the attitudes, standards, and ideals accompanying those activities. These facts supply the foundation and, when interpreted, supplemented, and corrected in the light of the desirable trends in social progress as indicated by modern social philosophy, give the actual basis for determining the educational objectives of the school.

Suggested principles of procedure.—While considerable has been accomplished in the direction of developing educational objectives, authorities have not as yet agreed upon any definite technic or method of procedure. As a guide to further discussion, however, the following tentative suggestion of principles for determining secondary-school objectives is offered.

1. The utilization of the work of students of economics, sociology, government, health, and other special phases and aspects of human affairs, and of the social philosopher, for the facts and principles of social progress and indications as to the desirable trends in the activities of society as a basis for supplementing and correcting the results of the more detailed analyses made in the succeeding steps.
2. The classification of the activities of society into their major groups and the partial analysis of those groups to determine the ultimate and subsidiary aims of education.
3. The analysis of the several large groups of activities into the specific activities composing them and the standards and ideals that now accompany each, and that should control each as indicated by step one, and the determination therefrom of the major educational objectives indicating the larger steps to be taken in advancing in the direction indicated by the subsidiary aims.
4. The analysis of the educational by-products of social agencies other than the school, to discover the educational needs, as

shown by the preceding analyses, adequately met, partially met, and not at all met by those agencies.

5. The analysis of the educational results already accomplished by the elementary school.
6. The determination on basis of facts gained in the preceding steps, and interpreted in the light of modern social philosophy, of the major objectives of the secondary school.
7. The detailed analysis of the specific activities in each group of life activities with reference to the knowledges, habits, skills, etc., composing them and the attitudes, tastes, standards, and ideals accompanying or controlling them for determining the specific, working objectives of the secondary school in the various phases of its work, and their grouping and ordering as indicated by: (*a*) the sum total of changes for which the secondary school is wholly or partially responsible; (*b*) the special purposes and the amount of time available for each secondary-school curriculum; (*c*) the capacity, aptitudes, interests, and life purposes of the pupils; and (*d*) the maturity of the pupils.

The need of continuous revision.—The program of determining educational objectives for the secondary school based upon the needs of the adolescent and of society as revealed by analyses of their activities, interpreted in the light of desirable trends, is not the work of a day or of a year. It is a problem of continuous adjustment and undoubtedly will have to be accomplished, at first at least, through the gradual modification of subjects now in secondary-school curriculums, through the elimination or addition of subject-matter materials, and the gradual reorganization of curriculums and courses of study. Entirely new subjects or elements of subject matter will necessarily be introduced from time to time. The adequacy and effectiveness of the adjustment will depend at all times upon the extent to which scientific analyses are applied to the activities of society and to the nature, activities, and needs of the adolescent and the incorporation of the results into the educational activities of the school. The acceptance on the part of those directing the work of secondary edu-

cation throughout the country, particularly in the small communities, of the scientific viewpoint in the determination of educational objectives and the activities used in their attainment would in itself gradually revolutionize the work of those schools.

The necessity of coöperative effort.—No local principal of a small secondary school, with his teachers, can go unaided through the whole process in planning the work of his school. Although there is much more material at hand than has ever been utilized a great deal is yet lacking. State-wide coöperation will be necessary for handling the problem adequately. Even now, however, the staff of a school can make a study of its own community and pupils and, guided by such statements of the aims of secondary education as offered by Inglis or the Committee upon the Reorganization of Secondary Education, or the more complete analysis of objectives by Bobbitt and others, can go for in the determination of the range and nature of the school's program and in the gradual development of specific objectives and standards for the various phases of its work.

As stated before, the various steps in determining the objectives of secondary education upon a scientific basis will require the coöperation of many and the utilization of facts drawn from varied sources. Not only the wisdom and experience of professional educators but the wisdom and experience of students of all the different phases of human affairs should be utilized. All significant activities of life with their emotionalized qualities as partially objectified in attitudes, tastes, appreciations, and ideals should be reflected in the objectives of the secondary school. Only through the scientific studies of all phases of life carried on by persons trained in making analyses of the different phases can this be accomplished. To the educator in the field of secondary education, with the aid of the educational psychologist, falls the task of selecting and evaluating the

facts and principles that are set forth by the various agencies and transmuting them into educational objectives.

The work of analyzing the activities of society and breaking them up into the component knowledges, abilities, etc., needed by the individual participating in those activities efficiently, will be difficult. A more difficult task in many respects, however, is to be found in the discovery of the satisfactions expressed in terms of interests, tastes, appreciations, standards, and ideals, those more or less subjective qualities that accompany and control the various activities in which youth and adults engage and those that should accompany and control them. These elements are, however, indispensable in determining the nature of education directed toward the emotional side of life. An important phase of the secondary school's work in the future undoubtedly will lie in this direction. No exact means are as yet available for determining them objectively. So far as known they should be set forth as objectives in the activities of every school. Even now the sociologist and the social philosopher should be able to render great service in solving those problems.

Adjustment to differences in communities.—One of the most important tasks of those directing secondary education in small communities is the interpretation of the work of the small high school in terms of the broad purposes of secondary education. No small part of this task is the discovery of the resources and lacks or deficiencies of small communities and their bearing upon the achievement of the aims of the secondary school. The work of the small high school should in the sum of its activities be *broad* rather than *general;* it should give a wide range of *specific* contacts with life. The ultimate aim and the subsidiary aims of secondary education should undoubtedly be the same for all secondary schools whether large or small; rural, village, or urban. The major objectives also should be

similar for all schools to the extent that they include in their programs similar types of educational activities.

The educational by-products of social agencies other than the school as the home, church, libraries, museums, parks, theaters, art galleries, department stores, manufactories, and civic organizations in the city differ from those in either the village or rural community. Those of the village differ, but in a lesser degree, from those of the strictly rural community. In general, the urban child of secondary-school age has had vastly broader and richer educational experiences in what may be termed the products of our civilization than has either the village or rural child. The rural and village child is to a greater or lesser degree, depending upon the location of the community, lacking in those elements of education.

The influence of environment upon the pupil.—In the village and open country, on the other hand, the child's physical environment, especially in its natural aspects, has been closer to him, more intimate, than the urban child's. The adolescent in the small community comes to the secondary school equipped with a fund of experiences fundamental to school work in science. He has already come to know fields and streams, their physical characteristics, and their plant and animal life. He has experienced at first hand many of the more infrequent yet significant phenomena of nature and has observed the natural effects of wind, rain, hail, snow, lightning, drouth, cold, and heat. He has learned to appreciate and in part to utilize or cope with many of nature's forces in a way denied to the average urban adolescent. In this respect, in his acquaintance with his physical environment, he has usually an educational asset that may well be capitalized upon in his high-school work.

Finally, it seems safe to assume with respect to all types of activities that significant differences exist between the people of small communities and those of larger urban

communities. Consequently, it seems no less certain that equally significant differences with respect to attitudes, tastes, appreciations, standards, and ideals also exist. Thus it follows that the experience background of secondary-school pupils from rural and village communities is in a real sense peculiar to those types of communities. All these things do not mean that the subsidiary aims or the major objectives, in so far as the activities of different types of communities are similar, should differ, but they do indicate the nature of the differences that should probably exist in the specific or working objectives, in the materials to be used in the attainment of such objectives if the work of the school is to capitalize upon and be in harmony with the educational experiences gained outside the school. They indicate where differences in activities exist and hence where differences in major objectives may be desirable. They indicate also the need of relative differences in emphasis upon different guiding objectives according to the differences in the status of communities. They show clearly the need of a scientific method of determining objectives and teaching materials through analytical studies of the activities in different types of communities and of the experience background of secondary-school pupils in those communities.

The results of elementary education in the village and rural communities undoubtedly differ more or less widely from those ordinarily gained in the urban school. In general these differences are to be expressed in terms of lacks and deficiencies in the former as compared with the latter. Only scientific studies of all phases of elementary education for different types of communities will show specifically what the differences are. It seems safe to say, however, on the basis of studies already made that the average elementary school in the small community is deficient in education relative to health, construction work, acquaintance with and appreciation of art, group coöperation,

and educative play activities, if measured by the standards of the urban school. All these differences to the extent that they exist should have a bearing upon the work of the secondary school in the small community. Facts are essential for showing the specific ways in which the work of the elementary school should influence that of the secondary school to which it is contributory.

The preceding discussion has indicated to some extent at least the need of differentiation in the analysis of society and its activities as represented by the small community from that of the large urban community. It has also pointed out the need of studying the work of the rural and village elementary schools separately. That in a large measure the educational results of elementary education in all communities are similar is highly probable. The significant question, however, for the secondary school in any community to answer as best it may, is what are the facts for its own patronage area. Hence, the major problem of determining educational objectives as it applies to the local secondary school is concerned with the last three steps: (1) an analysis of the educational by-products of the home and other social agencies in the community; (2) an analysis of the work of the elementary school; and (3) an analysis of the activities and existing attitudes, standards, etc., of the community for determining the phases of secondary education to be carried on, those to be emphasized, and the specific or working objectives pertinent to each phase. The last will be concerned with the educational needs remaining after those adequately met by other agencies have been subtracted from the sum total found.

The use of the survey.—The survey probably furnishes the best practical method of obtaining the data upon which to base the determination of the working objectives of the local school though it probably will not reveal all the objectives the school should work toward or the standards that should control its work. The more complete the

survey and the more carefully each group of activities and its controlling or accompanying standards and ideals are analyzed, the more adequately can the activities of the school be adapted to the needs of the community. It should cover the ground represented by health, economic, civic, sociability, intellectual, esthetic, religious, and recreational activities, and the relationships existing between the different groups so far as these can be determined. It should show the customs, prejudices, tastes, standards, and ideals prevailing in each. It should show the educational resources of the community both as regards the social environment and the physical environment. It should reveal the significant lacks and deficiencies of the community by comparison of the status of the community as a whole with the best in the community or, better, with the status of progressive communities of a similar type.

In themselves the results of a survey, however complete it may be, do not supply all the facts necessary for determining all the objectives or standards of the school. They show only the nature and range of the community's activities and characteristics as they are. The objectives of the local school should be built upon them but the total range of its objectives and its standards should be in agreement, so far as feasible, with those based upon the results of comparative studies and the most authoritative statements of objectives and standards available for communities of that type. It should always include those common and integrating objectives desirable as goals in all secondary schools. Facts gained through the survey should reveal the emphasis necessary in each case to bring the pertinent activities to practicable standards. The secondary school is not responsible for maintaining the existing status of its community but for improving that status where desirable. It should supplement, enrich, and frequently correct the activities, standards, and ideals of a community. It must build, however, upon things as they are.

The classification of educational objectives.—Different writers on the objectives of education have offered suggestions as to their grouping or classification. Snedden[1] uses the terms "developmental" and "projective" to distinguish the two major groups. Under developmental he includes objectives "in which it is primarily the obligation of educators to provide wholesome conditions for natural growth or development." In large part, these objectives are designed to develop appreciations, though not entirely so. Projective objectives "are those imposed upon youth against the long years of adult needs"; they are those objectives in which ability to do, to execute, are predominant and hence with respect to which thoroughness is highly important. Charters[2] groups all educational objectives from one viewpoint as (1) activity objectives, and (2) ideal objectives; from a second viewpoint as: (*a*) vocational objectives, and (*b*) nonvocational or extravocational objectives. In the first grouping he distinguishes between the abilities, knowledges, skills, etc., used in the performance of activities, and the standards and ideals controlling the performance. In the second grouping he separates those objectives directly pertaining to one's vocation from those which pertain to one's education "irrespective of his vocation"; those pertaining to his "extravocational interests and activities." Both these classifications should be helpful to one working on the problems of objectives for the secondary school.

Objectives as integrating and differentiating.—In the secondary school all major objectives, and consequently the specific objectives belonging to each of them, may, from the standpoint of their bearing upon the education of any pupil, be classified, it would seem, into two large groups.

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[1] David Snedden, *Educational Applications of Sociology* (Century, 1924), Ch. iv.

[2] W. W. Charters, *Curriculum Construction* (Macmillan, 1923), Chs. iii-v.

The first may be termed the constant, common, or integrating objectives; the second, the variable or differentiating objectives. To the first group belong those objectives pertaining to the acquirement of those knowledges, habits, abilities, attitudes, appreciations, standards, and ideals regarded as desirable possessions of all persons. They are, in the main, objectives pertaining to health, the vernacular as an instrument of communication, certain commonly desirable insights and appreciations in literature, art, and science, civic rights, duties and responsibilities, service, and social conduct. To the second or differentiating group belong three important types: (*a*) the vocational-core objectives, those concerned with the skills, knowledges, and social abilities pertinent to the art of production in a vocation;[3] (*b*) the nonvocational-core objectives, those concerned with the knowledges, skills, abilities, tastes, appreciations, etc., pertinent to those activities into which one enters because of a major purpose to be realized either through the activities themselves or as preparatory to later activities; and (*c*) the free or individualistic objectives, those concerned with the knowledges, skills, abilities, tastes, appreciations, etc., pertinent to those activities in which an individual desires to engage because of an interest in them but which do not bear necessarily any close relation to his major purpose.

In the secondary school, type (*b*) objectives are not directly pertinent to a vocation though they may be preparatory to vocational training. Examples are those objectives guiding the work in the natural sciences, social sciences, and languages where one of these groups of studies represents the pupil's major curricular interest. Type (*c*) objectives are not distinct from the nonvocational-core objectives in general except that they represent for the individual pupil the ends to be reached in the study of the

[3] T. H. Eaton, *Vocational Education in Farming Occupations* (Lippincott, 1923), p. 135.

nonrestricted electives of his curriculum. In general, though not always, they control his educational activities to the end of meeting avocational or recreational needs. The groups and variety of the core and individualistic objectives should be as numerous as the size of the school makes practicable.

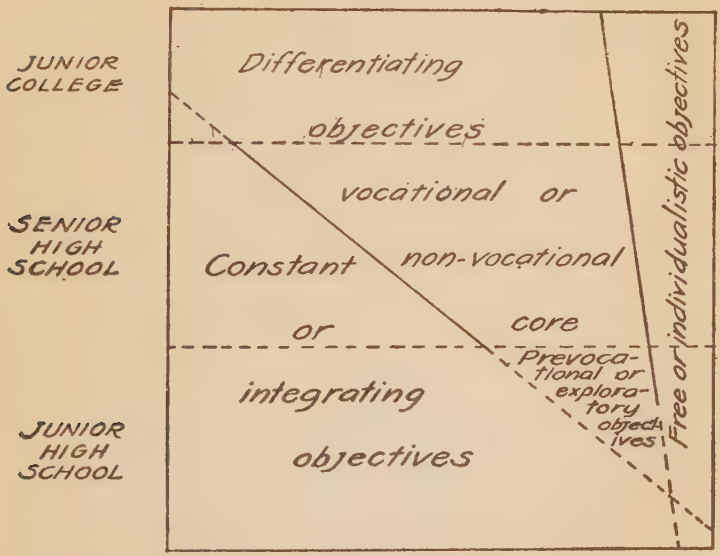

DIAGRAM 1.—THE CLASSIFICATION OF OBJECTIVES IN THE EDUCATION OF THE SECONDARY-SCHOOL PUPIL.

Common or integrating objectives.—The common or integrating objectives indicate those goals the attainment of which is desirable in the education of every individual so far as capacity for development makes practicable. They indicate the abilities and characteristics deemed necessary for successful participation in the ordinary affairs of life. They point out the directions in which education should go and the ends desirable in promoting like-mindedness and social solidarity, and may be thought of as

those tending to develop sociological likenesses among individuals. They are the guides to the major part of the education in the early stages of the secondary school and in gradually decreasing degree should receive attention through practically the whole of the secondary-school period.

From the standpoint of subject matter in the secondary school their realization is concerned with those elements suited to building up in the pupil the knowledges, abilities, attitudes, appreciations, standards, etc., desirable possessions of all with regard to health, communication and the interpretation of thought, acceptance of civic responsibilities, service, and the common understanding, appreciation, and utilization of one's social and physical environment. They concern the elements of subject matter directly pertaining to the activities commonly engaged in by any individual participating in human affairs to-day.

Differentiating objectives.—As stated previously in the discussion, differentiating objectives are those pertaining to the education of the individual along lines determined by his particular interests, aptitudes, and life purposes. They are the objectives pertinent to the acquirement of those knowledge, abilities, skills, attitudes, appreciations, and standards representing his specific needs and necessary to the successful performance of the activities significant primarily in his life as an individual and in filling his particular place in society. As the individual's vocational, cultural, and recreational activities are inseparably bound up with the human environment in which he moves, they have at all times, but in varying degrees, social significance. In varied groupings, according to interests, aptitudes, and life purposes of pupils or groups of pupils, they are the guides to the differentiation desirable in secondary education. Opportunity for study in the direction of differentiating objectives should be afforded in gradually increasing degree throughout the secondary-school period.

Pupils interested and having the capacity should be encouraged and should be afforded opportunity for pursuing their studies as far beyond the minimum goals set up as time and talent permit.

Problems

1. In the light of the vastness of existing knowledge and art what are the weaknesses of culture interpreted in terms of certain school subjects?
2. Assuming that secondary education should promote in each pupil development in the direction of individual and social efficiency, upon what bases should the objectives common in the education of all pupils be determined?
3. Upon what bases should differentiating objectives be determined?
4. What are the weaknesses of basing the required work of all secondary-school pupils upon the college preparatory subjects?
5. What are the difficulties to be met in developing the aims and objectives of secondary education out of analyses of life activities? What are the advantages?
6. Make as careful an analysis as possible of one or more phases of the educational experiences that might be gained outside of school by the children of a community. In what ways do these represent assets to be used or deficiencies to be reckoned with in the work of the local high school?

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CHAPTER IV

THE AIMS AND OBJECTIVES OF SECONDARY EDUCATION

In the preceding chapter, a general method of determining the objectives of secondary education with reference to actual life activities was suggested. In the present chapter, statements of the aims of the secondary school according to the viewpoint presented in that discussion are offered, and some application is made of the method of developing and using major and specific objectives.

With regard to its aims or purposes recent writers approaching the problem from various angles have made statements that may be regarded as elements in a developing democratic philosophy of public secondary education. They all stress the intimate relationship that should exist at all times between the school and the life activities and needs of the community which the school serves. "Secondary education . . . must be conceived as determined fundamentally by its functions as a social agency. . . . Secondary education must constantly be readapted to meet the changing needs of the society which it serves."[1] "The aims and scope of the new education must be defined in terms of social economy."[2] "The supreme test [of the high school] lies in the question, Do the activities of the school function in right activities in society? . . . Is the community a better place in which to live by reason of the presence of the school?"[3] "The democratic philosophy of

[1] Alexander Inglis, *Principles of Secondary Education* (Houghton Mifflin, 1918), Ch. ix.

[2] David Snedden, *Educational Readjustment* (Houghton Mifflin, 1913), Ch. i.

[3] F. B. Pearson, *The High School Problem* (Row Peterson, 1916), pp. 25-26.

education conceives the secondary school to be a controlled environment, to which all adolescent children are welcome (unless special institutions are serving them better), in which the children meet situations typical of adult social life to which they learn to respond effectively, and through which they get the knowledge, habits, powers, attitudes, and ideals which make them efficient citizens."[4] "The primary purpose of the school is to teach its pupils to do better the desirable things that they are most likely to do anyway" and second, "to reveal higher types of activity and to make these desired and to an extent possible."[5]

Two influential statements of aims.—Two statements of aims that have received considerable recognition in secondary education in recent years are those of the Committee on the Reorganization of Secondary Education and of Inglis in his *Principles of Secondary Education.* The aim of education as stated by the Committee is "to develop in each individual the knowledge, interests, ideals, habits, and powers whereby he will find his place and use that place to shape both himself and society toward ever nobler ends." As the seven objectives for the secondary school in following this aim the Committee sets up (1) health, (2) citizenship, (3) command of the fundamental processes, (4) worthy home membership, (5) worthy use of leisure, (6) vocations, and (7) ethical character. Inglis gave his triple aim of secondary education as, the social-civic, the economic-vocational, and the individualistic-avocational. Under the first he included those phases of secondary education designed primarily to prepare the individual for his responsibilities as a coöperating member of society; under the second, for his duties as a producer; and under the third, for his development as a personality and for his

[4] *Proceedings* of North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (1920), p. 28.

[5] T. H. Briggs, "What Next in Secondary Education?" *School Review,* Vol. 30 (September, 1922), pp. 521-532.

utilization of leisure. Both these expressions of the nature and purpose of secondary education as well as those quoted in the preceding paragraph interpret the work of the secondary school in terms of life activities. Practically all give weight also to the importance of the individual.

Individual and social efficiency as the ultimate aim.—It is essential in a democratic form of secondary education that both the individual and society at all times receive due consideration. Individuality, as well as social coöperation and stability, is desirable. From individuality in thinking and achieving must come the variations essential to progress. From a common understanding and appreciation of society in its various aspects, its institutions and their development and functions, and its ideals must come the degree of stability necessary for insuring controlled, orderly progress. The ultimate purpose or aim of secondary education should be such as to promote, appropriate to the stage of education represented, a desirable balance between the forces of differentiation and integration.

Several general aims of education, all of them carrying some desirable concept as to the nature of the learning process, are having important influence upon the development of educational theory and practice. Of these growth, self-realization, and social efficiency should be considered in their bearing upon secondary education. Growth as an aim carries with it an essential concept but within itself gives no definite indication as to the way in which it should be interpreted, the direction which development is to take. Growth must be directed. Self-realization implies growth and the development of individuality but does not stress sufficiently the social side of education. Social efficiency adds definiteness as to the nature of the goals to be striven for, but might lead and, as an aim, sometimes has led to overemphasis upon group demands, the demands of society, to the neglect of the individual. For secondary education a simple statement of aim or purpose that incorporates all

the various concepts of growth, self-realization, and efficiency is desirable. *To develop individual and social efficiency* would seem to meet these requirements. It gives the emphasis desirable both to the individual and to society. Finally, it indicates the nature of the goals to be worked toward and the close relationship that should ever exist between the educational activities of the school, the pupil, and human affairs.

Except at the two extremes the differences between the activities and interests of the adolescent and those of the adult are mainly matters of degree. In major part the secondary-school pupil's activities and interests are intimately allied, not foreign, to those of adult life. If the experiences gained in the school reflect the activities and interests about him and are promoted through problems and materials and, according to standards, adapted to his capacity and experience background, he will grow or develop normally. He will be participating in life while he is being fitted for entering efficiently into the responsibilities of adult life.

To work effectively toward individual and social efficiency, those in charge of the secondary school must understand both the individual to be educated and his environment. They must analyze the pupil's abilities, interests, purposes, and activities as an adolescent and, at the same time, the contemporary activities of adults, forecasting as far as possible, by the observation and study of tendencies, the probable activities of the near future. These facts and principles they must utilize in determining the objectives, subject matter and its sequence, methods, and the organization of the school. To the extent that they succeed in harmonizing the nature and needs of youth with the needs of society will they make the school functional and give to it the characteristics that are to be desired in a democratic institution suited to the education of all youth.

The subsidiary aims of secondary education.—We have pointed out that the objectives of secondary education are to be derived largely from an analysis of life activities, the attitudes that accompany these activities, and the standards and ideals that govern them. One's success in meeting the various situations that arise depends largely upon his training in and through activities typical of those situations. The significant activities of an individual, both as an individual and as a member of social groups, whether in rural or urban communities, may be roughly classified under a comparatively small number of related but fairly distinct major groups. A partial analysis of these groups gives a basis upon which to build the subsidiary aims of a secondary school working toward individual and social efficiency. More detailed analyses, coupled with the capacities and activities of youth, furnish the basis for determining the major and specific objectives controlling the various phases of secondary education.

In general these major groups of activities within which the specific activities of the individual are to be found may be indicated as follows:

1. The *health group* including his activities:
   - (*a*) as a follower of health practices and principles
   - (*b*) as a promoter of family and community health
2. The *economic group* including his activities:
   - (*a*) as a producer
   - (*b*) as a business man, manager, enterpriser, salesman, etc.
   - (*c*) as a consumer
3. The *civic group* including his activities:
   - (*a*) as a member of a family and of a community
   - (*b*) as a participator in the work of civic institutions, voluntary and governmental
   - (*c*) as an intelligent voter
4. The *sociability group* including his activities:
   - (*a*) as a participator in the sociability of the family and the community
   - (*b*) as a promoter of desirable phases and standards of sociability.

5. The *intellectual group* including his intellectual activities:
   (*a*) as an individual interested in questions and problems of his physical and human environment
   (*b*) as a participator in the intellectual life of family, community, and society in general
   (*c*) as a promoter of the intellectual life of the family and of the community
6. The *recreational group* including his activities:
   (*a*) as an individual engaging in forms of recreation
   (*b*) as a participator in forms of recreation in the family and in the community
7. The *esthetic group* including his activities:
   (*a*) as an individual appreciator of the beautiful
   (*b*) as a participator as a member of a family and a community in the enjoyment of the beautiful
   (*c*) as a promoter of those things which add to the beauty of home and community
   (*d*) as an amateur interpreter or producer of things artistic
8. The *religious group* including his activities:
   (*a*) as a follower of religious principles
   (*b*) as a participator in the religious life of family and community
   (*c*) as a promoter of religious life

Every adolescent and every adult in every community in this country engages, with a greater or less degree of understanding and effectiveness, in specific activities included in each of the groups represented in the analysis above. Some of them are primarily personal with but the minimum of social significance; others possess high social values. The demands made upon him in performing those activities effectively for the adequate realization of personal satisfactions and the rendering of his peculiar service to society, first as an adolescent and later as an adult, and the others that it is desirable he should perform indicate his educational needs. For himself, for the community in which he lives, and for American society in general the important thing ultimately is the efficiency he shows in the performance of those activities, the ability with which he

acts, the attitude he has toward his act, and the standards and ideals by which he evaluates his activity. In a democracy it is highly desirable that he perform his part sympathetically, intelligently, and effectively. To do this requires that he shall be in possession of certain common and special knowledge, shall have developed certain abilities, insights, attitudes, appreciations, and tastes, shall maintain a rational attitude toward personal and social problems, and shall be governed by worthy standards and ideals.

While each individual will be active in some form or other in all the major groups of activities, the range and variety in any one group will depend upon such factors as his vocation, the major life interests and hobbies outside his vocation, and his community. Upon the activities commonly desirable regardless of vocation, interests, community, etc., should be based the common or integrating educational objectives. Upon those that vary according to the interests, vocations, and recreational pursuits of individuals, and the place they occupy in human affairs should be based the differentiating objectives.

Our knowledge of the significant activities in society is at present insufficient for determining definitely either the objectives that should be common goals in the education of all youth or for the differentiating objectives that should guide the course of pupils or groups of pupils of certain interests, aptitudes, and life purposes in their education beyond that of the common requirements. Scientific study supplemented and interpreted in the light of the best thought in social philosophy and the researches in psychology and sociology must be relied upon for the information needed in deciding these matters more accurately and for making from time to time the adjustments necessary as changes take place in human affairs and in the ways in which persons as individuals and groups seek their recreational and esthetic satisfactions. In the meantime, however, enough is more or less definitely known to give

secondary-school principals and teachers valuable assistance in organizing curriculums and courses of study on much more functional bases than most of them have at present. Recent developments in various forms of vocational work in the secondary school should serve both as a guide and as a stimulus in the reorganization of academic work upon the basis of life needs.

The subsidiary aims of secondary education should be such as to indicate and orient the whole range of activities to be given attention in the secondary school. They should be broad enough to include in their scope all the major groups of life activities. The following is a suggestive list based upon the analysis made above:

1. The promotion of health efficiency
2. The promotion of economic efficiency
3. The promotion of civic efficiency
4. The promotion of sociability efficiency
5. The promotion of intellectual efficiency
6. The promotion of recreational efficiency
7. The promotion of esthetic efficiency
8. The promotion of religious efficiency

Determining the work of the school with reference to the aims.—To meet the educational demands of a democratic form of society requires that every secondary school, rural, village, or urban, give attention in the education of every pupil to all the subsidiary aims mentioned above or to some other set equally inclusive. The amount and nature of the training pertaining to each must be determined by the capacity, interests, and maturity of the pupil and the educational results of the elementary school and agencies other than the school. Above a certain minimum indicated by the common essentials of adjustment and integration, the capacity, the special interests and life purposes of the individual pupil should determine the particular course which his training will take with reference to any particular objective or set of objectives.

Irrespective of special interests, etc., on the part of the pupil, the secondary school should promote in each pupil a normal physical development. It should develop in each a sense of responsibility as a member of society and of a democracy, a desirable attitude toward the performance of civic duties. It should train each pupil, so far as age and time make feasible, to participate intelligently in activities promoting the general welfare of the school group and society in general. It should give each pupil training for participation in activities pertaining to sociability, through appropriate opportunities while in school for engaging in group life. In so far as the age and understanding of the pupil at each stage of development makes desirable, it should give training for home life and parenthood. For pupils not going beyond the secondary school or any administrative unit of secondary education it should offer opportunities for vocational training as varied as the facilities of the school and the numbers and vocational purposes of such pupils make practicable. It should stimulate each pupil to continue his education after his formal school life is ended by promoting in him the development of abiding intellectual, recreational, and esthetic habits, interests, and desires.

The problem of guidance.—One of the most perplexing problems of the adolescent is that of finding his place in human affairs. Because of his immaturity and lack of experience he needs help and guidance in adjusting himself. A reorganized curriculum closely related to the activities of society should in itself do much to solve the problem. It will never be sufficient, however, to answer the questions concerning vocational choice and selection of courses to be pursued where differentiation in education is permitted, as it undoubtedly will be in all but the very early stages of the junior high school. It is becoming one of the major responsibilities of the secondary school especially in the early stages. Guidance should be given every pupil which

would help him toward an intelligent selection of a vocation and toward the planning of his work in harmony with his native capacity, interests, aptitudes, and vocational choice.

Training to think.—In a progressive form of society it is desirable that all persons be open-minded, that they approach problems rationally. To insure progress it is essential not only that the next generation be brought to the level of society to-day but that it be able and willing to make adjustments in the light of the needs of to-morrow. This requires the ability to evaluate, to weigh, and to accept and reject on the basis of judgments formed on facts. While in major part one's intellectual activities grow out of his activities in the other groups as vocational, civic, recreational, etc., it is important to know as definitely as possible the problematic situations that he meets. For this reason it seems desirable to consider intellectual activities as a special group. Training in thinking is undoubtedly most likely to carry over when the thinking in school is in connection with questions and problems most typical of life. Throughout the secondary-school period, with gradually increasing emphasis and in connection with all its activities, thinking should be encouraged. A rational attitude toward all problems should be developed through constant practice in thought-provoking situations.

Training in conduct.—Like the woof of a fabric, interwoven in all the activities of the school, should run desirable habits, attitudes, standards, and ideals of conduct. These should be both individual and social. Just what they shall be is, in major part, to be determined. Certain ones that are accepted by many may serve to illustrate. Those primarily individual in their bearing are: the habits of concentration on the task at hand, the habit of orderly procedure, the habit of accuracy and care in details, the habit of confidence, the habit of industry, the habit of perseverance, the habit of critical evaluation, the attitude of

personal responsibility, the attitude of willingness to work to achieve worth-while results, and habits and attitudes of inquiry and initiative. Among those primarily social in their bearing are: habits of sympathetic coöperation, habits of courtesy, habits and attitudes of open-mindedness and respect for the opinion of others, and habits and attitudes of service.

Training in the vernacular.—Some would place language efficiency, perhaps, as a subsidiary aim of the secondary school. Language as an instrument of expression and interpretation of ideas is essential to effective participation in practically all significant life activities. Hence the development of language abilities, habits, and standards is essential in the work of the secondary school. As it is pertinent to the attainment of all the objectives, it is in many respects, like habits, attitudes, and ideals of conduct, pertinent to all phases of education, and is to be developed in relation to them. The language abilities to be developed at any stage in secondary education depend upon the language needs of the pupil in his activities and the demands of adult society in so far as these demands are compatible with the capacities of individuals of secondary-school age. Much of the training in language should be given in direct connection with each phase of education. To make administration of curriculums easy, and to insure that it receives adequate attention, it should, and must probably, be treated as a special subject through the larger portion of the secondary-school period.

Major objectives.—The major objectives, as suggested in the preceding chapter, are to be determined by an analysis of each major group of activities into the specific activities within each group. The sum total of knowledges, abilities, appreciations, standards, etc., desirable in the performance of these activities, less those already acquired in the elementary school or as by-products of other agencies, represents the field of the secondary school. Exception is

to be made, to be sure, of the abilities, etc., required in those special activities which represent the field of higher technical and professional schools. The order and arrangement of the objectives determined and their grouping into common or integrating and differentiating objectives should be made on the basis of the universality of their utility and their appropriateness to the capacity and interests of the pupil and his stage of learning.

Specific objectives.—The specific objectives, or those guiding the teacher in the immediate activities of the classroom, are determined by the status of the members of a particular class group and their educational needs as indicated by what they should accomplish to attain the group of major objectives pertinent to that particular study. Such objectives will depend upon the educational experience, interests, and purposes of that particular group of pupils.

Illustrative major objectives.—A few concrete illustrations of major objectives based upon a partial empirical analysis of selected subgroups of activities belonging to three of the major groups may help to clarify the preceding discussion.

1. To promote health efficiency in an individual with reference to his activities as a follower of health practices and principles:
   - (*a*) knowledge of the function of the important major organs of the body
   - (*b*) knowledge of the care of the body necessary for the proper functioning of those organs
   - (*c*) knowledge of food values
   - (*d*) knowledge of the function of physical exercise and appropriate forms of exercise
   - (*e*) knowledge of appropriate clothing
   - (*f*) desirable habits of caring for the body
   - (*g*) desirable habits of physical exercise
   - (*h*) desirable habits of eating
   - (*i*) desirable standards of personal hygiene
   - (*j*) desirable standards of physical efficiency

2. In the economic group, as an intelligent consumer:
   (*a*) knowledge as to the relative values of clothing materials
   (*b*) knowledge of the relative values of foods
   (*c*) knowledge of desirable types of reading
   (*d*) knowledge of desirable forms of art
   (*e*) desirable tastes in dress
   (*f*) desirable tastes in music
   (*g*) desirable tastes in literature
   (*h*) desirable habits of dress
   (*i*) desirable habits of reading
   (*j*) desirable standards of dress
   (*k*) desirable standards of home decorations, etc.
3. In the civic group, as an intelligent participator in the work of civic institutions, governmental and voluntary:
   (*a*) knowledge of the nature of civic institutions
   (*b*) knowledge of the functions of civic institutions
   (*c*) knowledge of the organization of civic institutions
   (*d*) knowledge of the relation of the individual to civic institutions
   (*e*) habit of accepting due civic responsibilities
   (*f*) habit of performing civic duties honestly and consistently
   (*g*) standards of civic efficiency

These brief illustrations indicate what may be the nature of some of the major objectives of the secondary school in working in the direction of its subsidiary aims. Only the analytical study of the various groups of activities will adequately suggest for any time what the actual objectives of the secondary school should be after subtracting from the total those being attained through other agencies. For a detailed analysis of major objectives secondary-school principals and teachers should examine the analyses presented by Bobbitt in *How to Make a Curriculum* and the studies given in Charters' *Curriculum Construction.*

The fundamental aim or purpose and the subsidiary aims which indicate its several facets should be the same for all public secondary schools whether situated in city, village, or rural community. This is quite different, however, from

saying that the major and specific objectives, the elements of subject matter used, or the standards of achievement should be uniform for all schools. It is probable that the integrating major objectives should be similar ordinarily in similar phases of education in different schools. Differences in the educational experiences of secondary pupils gained in the elementary school and in community activity outside the school will often make advisable variation in major objectives and in relative amount of emphasis given certain ones in different schools. Greatest differences will occur, however, in the specific objectives governing the specific activities of each day in the classroom.

Adjustment of the school to the individual.—The secondary school should give each individual the maximum opportunity to develop, to realize himself both as an individual and as a member of society. The nature of the educational stimuli to which he is exposed and the specific changes to be desired in him will depend upon several factors, as capacity, interests, aptitudes, life purpose, and environment, even where the goals to be reached are those common in the education of all. The rate at which different individuals achieve the particular lines of development that should be emphasized and the standards which they can economically attain vary. These differences must be taken into account in arranging objectives, in selecting subject matter, and in determining desirable standards for pupils and groups of pupils.

Variation with reference to community needs.—Environmental deficiencies or assets peculiar to communities will necessarily cause the responsibilities of secondary schools to vary in the relative amount of emphasis they should give to certain phases of education. For example, one community may be lacking in desirable civic habits, attitudes, and ideals; or in the materials of esthetic appreciation; or in the ways of wholesome recreation; or even in all these things. A second community may have any or

all these in abundance and lack the resources desirable for occupational understanding or the knowledge necessary for promoting good health under its peculiar conditions of climate, topography, etc. In both communities the purpose and subsidiary aims of the secondary schools would be the same, but the goals to be attained in working effectively in the direction of those aims would differ in a great many respects.

The grouping and arrangement of objectives.—Psychology gives support to the idea that learning is specific. Sociology insists upon the necessity of specific goals in education determined with reference to specific needs as revealed through the analysis of life activities. Psychology indicates the desirability of differences in the education of individuals because of variation in capacities, interests, and aptitudes. Sociology reveals differences in individuals because of variation in the parts they play or will play in the activities of society. Both agree that there are fundamental likenesses in individuals both as individuals and as members of society. To satisfy the conditions of psychological and sociological likenesses and differences among individuals with regard to the nature and goals of education is the problem basic to the grouping of educational objectives in curriculums. Both psychologically and sociologically, the nearer the individual approaches maturity the more pronounced, the more clearly differentiated, the variations become. This principle should be observed in the organization of educational objectives and consequently of curriculums.

The objectives of the elementary school.—In the elementary school the work is determined mainly with reference to objectives based upon psychological and sociological likenesses. It is devoted to the realization of common or universal values. The education of all pupils is directed in major part toward the attainment of common ends—sociological likenesses. Sociological differences are given but

little attention. Psychological differences are recognized in general practice principally by variations in method, and, to a lesser degree, by variations in subject matter and standards of achievement according to differences in individual capacity. Educational objectives are arranged mainly with regard to relative importance, relative difficulty, and the previous training and maturity of the child, and to a lesser extent, in practice, with regard to the child's interests.

The primary responsibility of a public secondary school in a democracy is to meet those educational needs that are most universal. Its second responsibility, becoming more important as one advances toward the upper years of the secondary-school period, is to meet the special needs and interests of the various groups within its pupil population in so far as such training is appropriate to the secondary-school period, this to be determined by the nature of the adolescent and the age at which participation in the activities concerned begins. Both types of needs are based directly upon the activities of society or of groups in society. The degree to which the abilities, knowledges, etc., supplying these needs may be acquired by any individual depends upon his native capacity, aptitudes, ambition, and opportunities for education. Hence the materials actually used in the education of any individual and the standards of achievement set up should be adapted to the individual.

The objectives of the junior high school.—The secondary school at the beginning, in the junior-high-school period, should give prominence to sociological likenesses, to the attainment of those educational objectives pertaining to the knowledges, abilities, habits, tastes, attitudes, and appreciations, desirable components of the activities common to, or desirable in, all social groups. Every unit of education should be specific, directed toward the realization of specific ends, but the sum total should be extensive,

broad, in the sense that it contains elements of all phases of education appropriate to pupils of junior-high-school age. It should recognize psychological differences through variation of standards, some variation in methods and actual subject matter used, and in relative emphasis upon objectives. In a gradually increasing degree it should allow the pupils a limited election of variable subjects.

The objectives of the senior high school.—Gradually as interests develop, as aptitudes manifest themselves, as life purposes are clarified, and as the common or integrating objectives are attained the secondary school should provide more and more for differentiation. It should give greater prominence to the groups of educational objectives directly pertinent to success in the performance of those activities in which the pupil expects to engage in following out his life purposes or major interests. In the senior-high-school period differentiation should be recognized through curriculums which are distinct, but which contain in gradually decreasing proportion constant or integrating materials. In the junior-college period it seems that practically complete differentiation should be realized, and that all requirements should be based upon the principles of continuity and variety.

Integrating materials in secondary education.—In the practical administration of secondary-school curriculums reorganization with reference to objectives based upon life activities will, for the present at least, have to be made with reference to subjects now in secondary schools or available for them. Hence it may be helpful to suggest lists of subjects from the standpoint of their bearing upon the common or integrating objectives and from the standpoint of their bearing upon differentiating objectives. As subject matter is now organized into secondary-school subjects, the following studies are, or may be made, predominantly integrating in character.

A. English
   1. English language (oral and written expression)
   2. English and American literature (including current literature in books and magazines)
   3. Current discussions of problems of human affairs (written and spoken)

B. Social science
   1. American history and modern European history
   2. Community civics and state and national government
   3. Economics and sociology
   4. The study of occupations, readings about vocations
   5. Current events

C. Natural science
   1. General science
   2. Hygiene, sanitation, etc.
   3. General biology, civic biology, botany, zoölogy, etc.
   4. Physics and chemistry

D. Art
   1. Music
   2. Drawing
   3. Dramatics

E. General school activities
   (Assemblies, clubs, athletics, and coöperative school government)

As an illustration it may be well at this point to indicate the integrating values of certain groups of studies. For this purpose English and the social sciences are briefly considered. It should be kept in mind, however, that as at present organized and taught these values may not be entirely realized due to the lack of definite objectives and the selection of content pertaining to such objectives.

English is an integrating subject in the secondary school primarily because it is the vernacular of the nation, its medium of communication and thought. Through his command of the English language the individual has the key to the appreciation and understanding of national life. Through written and oral composition in English classes all phases of school work and of community, national, and world affairs may be considered. Through the study and

reading of the various types of literature of the past and present a knowledge and appreciation of the customs, traditions, problems, and ideals of American life and English-speaking peoples may be acquired. The experiences of the pupils are widened and the variety of these experiences increased. Intimate contacts with great characters and important events in the history of the country's development are made possible under the guidance of the school. The elements of common understanding are promoted. The development of desirable habits of reading and of permanent interests may be stimulated. And finally, through literary and debating clubs, not only is the pupil made acquainted with valuable material but opportunities for the understanding and practice of group action are easily afforded him.

The social sciences are integrating, among others, in the following ways: They afford, through the very nature of their content, one of the means for arriving at an understanding of group action. They are the key to the study of the evolution of society and its institutions. They furnish a direct avenue to the knowledge and appreciation of the important general social, civic, and economic institutions and their functions in society and the origin and bearing of basic social conventions and customs. Through the study of the social sciences should come the understanding of the nature and functions of law, and the relation of the individual to society. They are important means in leading the pupil to an understanding and appreciation of his obligations and responsibilities, civic, economic, and moral. Through their study and through the various activities of the community in which the pupil participates, they should lead to the development of abilities, attitudes, and ideals of group action and social service. Through the study of occupations, their characteristics and place in social welfare, the pupil may be given an insight into the interdependence and relationship of the various phases of human

endeavor. Through assigned and voluntary readings and discussions of current problems he may become acquainted with many types of general social, economic, civic, and moral questions of modern life.

Differentiating materials in the secondary school.—Examples of studies of the secondary school offering opportunities for differentiation are:

A. Additional units or special phases of studies suggested in the list of integrating subjects, selected for individual pupils or groups of pupils according to their special interests, aptitudes, or life purposes. Examples: a class in short-story writing, modern American fiction, the American essay, the history of music or of agriculture, etc.
B. Mathematics (when not made a general requirement).
C. Foreign languages and literatures (when not made a general requirement).
D. Prevocational studies such as: various types of shop work, clerical and commercial subjects, agriculture, home economics, etc.
E. Vocational studies such as: dairy farming, stock raising, fruit growing, machine shop, printing, carpentry, designing, home decoration, business methods, office filing, etc.
F. Studies (definitely selected and organized in relation to the vocation being prepared for) such as: mechanical drawing, the various types of applied mathematics, applied chemistry, applied physics, applied botany, commercial law, etc.

Method and educational objectives.—It should be recognized, to be sure, that the objectives of education are not all to be attained through the right selection of subject-matter content. The manner of presentation, or method, is an important factor, particularly with regard to those objectives of broad social significance. Desirable habits, attitudes, and standards of work, coöperation, and initiative are largely the result of ways of doing things and hence are in great measure dependent upon method. The development of a rational attitude is probably a question primarily of method rather than of content. The two

must be in harmony, however. It is desirable that the rationalization occurs in connection with the problems of today and to-morrow rather than those of yesterday. Hence, content should be related primarily to human affairs of the present. A very important thing is that the objectives of wide social utility be developed through all the activities, differentiating as well as integrating. It is especially important, if the pupil is to develop into an individual of initiative, to be open-minded, progressive, and capable of adjustment to conditions as they change, that habits of inquiry, evaluating facts and principles, and the making of judgments be emphasized throughout the secondary school in all phases of its work.

Problems

1. Analyze the work of a small high school with reference to some modern statement of the aims of secondary education: with respect to which aims is it doing efficient work? With respect to which aims is it weak?
2. Make in as much detail as possible a study of the more common needs of the people of a certain community or of a group in the community:

(*a*) as discriminating consumers
(*b*) as participators in the civic life of the community
(*c*) as participators in recreational pursuits
(*d*) as participators in the intellectual life of the community
(*e*) some other group activities

3. What relationship do you see between your analysis in problem two and the educational responsibilities of the high school?
4. Upon what basis would you determine the elements of education common to all curriculums in secondary education? The variant or differentiating elements?
5. Defend or oppose the theory that in the junior high school the main emphasis should be upon integrating materials, common values; and in the senior high school upon variable or differentiating materials.

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CHAPTER V

CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION IN THE SMALL SECONDARY SCHOOL

The problem of functional curriculum organization.—One of the outstanding problems in public secondary education in this country is that of organizing curriculums to meet the requirements of a democracy where all normal children of secondary-school age should be welcome in the secondary school and where all should find educational opportunities suited to their abilities, aptitudes, and life purposes. Three factors have played a large part in hindering the adjustment of the curriculum to the demands of life to-day: (1) the vagueness of objectives in secondary education, (2) the comparatively narrow and rigid requirements of higher educational institutions, and (3) the attitude of those responsible for curriculum organization who have approached the problem from the angle of attempting to justify subjects and subject matter now in secondary-school curriculums rather than from the angle of seeking to determine what subjects and subject matter possess the greatest values in meeting contemporary and future needs of pupils and society.

"Liberal" or "academic" curriculums especially have not kept pace with the changing needs of society. In small high schools, as shown in a preceding chapter, the prevailing "liberal" curriculums have continued to be in their major aspects those borrowed from urban high schools and found in such schools when they catered to the educational needs of the select few. In only a very limited degree have they been built up with reference either to community

needs or to the experience background of the pupils pursuing them.

An analysis of curriculums suggested by different states for high schools and of reports on the curriculums of small high schools in recent state school surveys and other studies indicates that the work of the majority of such schools is still limited largely to curriculums designed primarily as "preparation" for college. They still show the dominating influence of the old, outworn disciplinary ideals of secondary education. The emphasis in most of them is on languages and mathematics. Increased attention to social and natural sciences is evident. Ancient and medieval history are, however, the social-science subjects most commonly offered in the first two years. Modern European history, American history and civics, and other social-science subjects that may be closely related to American life are generally available only in the last two years of the small high school—a stage reached by approximately one-half of the pupils. With some exceptions, the work in the natural sciences is a "pocket edition" of college science with little or no adjustment in subject matter in the direction of the community's educational resources in science or the pupil's interests and experience background in science. The work of the first two years in the small high school is largely required of all pupils, and the requirements are mainly in subjects preparatory in nature—of deferred values. Elective subjects appear usually in the third and fourth years only and find their place as a result of the application of no well-defined principles of selection. In the smaller schools, if electives are offered, they are likely to consist mainly of additional units of the same subjects required in the first two years, *e.g.*, foreign languages and mathematics.

Statistics for the country as a whole indicate that approximately one-half of the pupils who enter small high schools never reach the third year and that over three-fifths of

those who enter never get as far as the fourth year. Of those who are graduated, one-half or less continue their education in higher educational institutions. Less than six out of ten of those continuing their education enter colleges and universities. Thus it is seen that approximately one in five of those who enter small four-year high schools continues his education beyond the high school and only one in eight or nine attends a college or university. The major responsibility of the secondary school is to give its pupils training of a nature designed to fit them for participation in the activities of life.

The curriculum and the demands of to-day.—Assuming that the ultimate aim of the small high school is the promotion of the pupil's development toward individual and social efficiency, it follows necessarily that the work of the school should be determined with regard to the needs of the pupil in the society of which he is a part and in whose activities he is to be a participant. The high school, if it is to serve its purpose in the most effective manner, must, with respect to its curriculums and other educational means, meet the demands of to-day. It must assume the responsibility for meeting in the highest degree possible the needs of its entire pupil population. These needs as indicated in the preceding chapters are to be determined by the maturity, capacities, interests, and life purposes of the pupils as they are, and by the demands of life as shown by the activities of society and their accompanying standards and ideals.

The small high school and the aims of secondary education.—Through its program of studies as a whole and through each of its curriculums, the small high school should undoubtedly work toward all of the major aims and objectives of secondary education. These as pointed out in Chapters III and IV will be determined through an analysis and an evaluation of the groups of demands made upon the individual. This analysis should be made

with special reference to the environment and experience background of children of secondary-school age in rural and village communities and with attention to the work done by educational agencies other than the school. The secondary school should organize its work as an institution with a task of its own to perform. The fact that a majority of its pupils complete their formal education either at the close of the high-school course or at some point within the course suggests that the curriculums of the small high school should be organized to give every pupil those educational experiences which will be most valuable to him and to society. The special requirements of advanced schools should be regarded as a problem of secondary importance. With careful guidance of pupils, high-school work thus determined should give the best preparation for advanced training to those desiring to continue their education.

From this point of view are suggested certain principles of curriculum organization with special reference to the small secondary school. It is necessary to use subjects in major part as the unit of subject matter. It is recognized, however, that the content of the subject, its organization, and the manner of its presentation are important factors in determining whether or no any curriculum is an effective instrument for attaining its objectives. All are inseparably bound up together in the control of the educative process. For the present discussion it is assumed that the selection and organization of the content of each subject and the method of its presentation will be determined by the ends which that subject is to serve in any particular curriculum and with reference to the pupils pursuing it. The principles offered are applicable either to the junior-senior organization or to the four-year high school with such modifications as will be indicated.

Constant and variable elements in the curriculum.—In the application of the principles of curriculum organization to the actual development of a curriculum two types

of subjects must be considered—constants and variables. Those subjects essential in the promotion of health, in the training in and for citizenship in a democracy, and in the

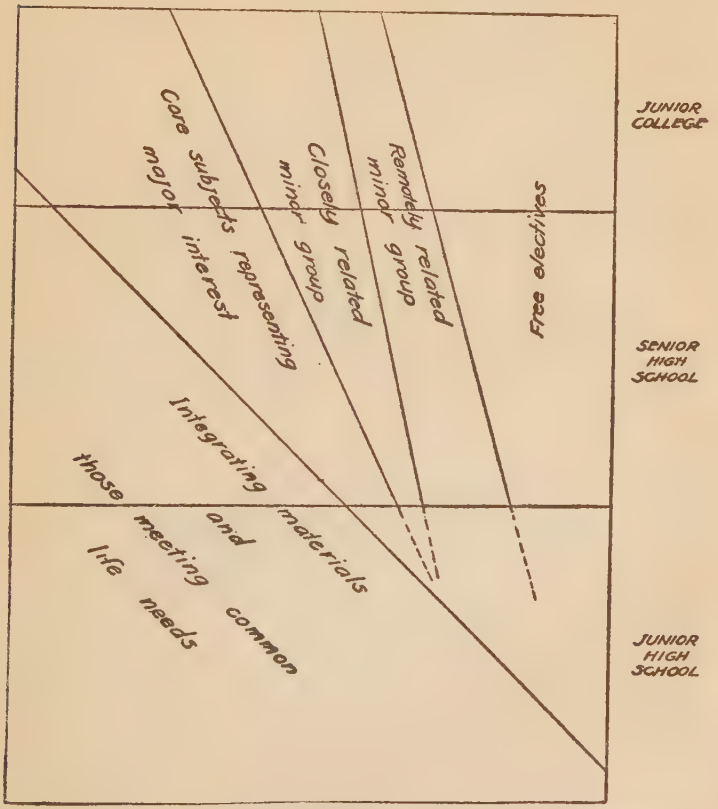

DIAGRAM 2.—A DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE ELEMENTS IN A "LIBERAL" CURRICULUM

acquirement of a command of the vernacular, and hence highly desirable in all secondary-school curriculums, are constants. In the junior-high-school period certain other subjects, such as general science, literature, and music, taught largely from the standpoint of appreciation, are

generally regarded as constants. Subjects which offer opportunities for diversification or differentiation are variables. In any curriculum the variables are of two kinds:

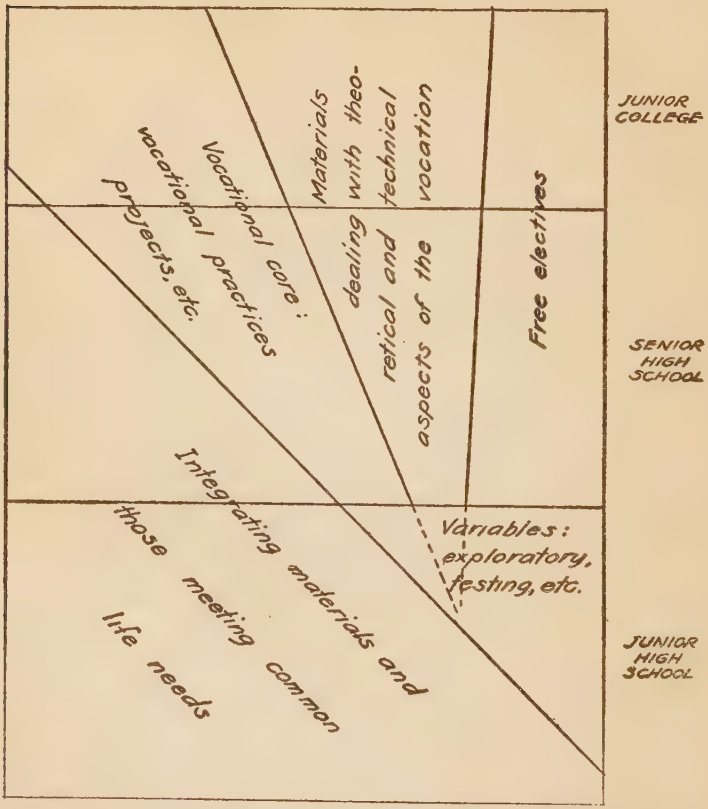
JUNIOR COLLEGE
SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL
JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL
Vocational core: vocational practices projects, etc.
Materials dealing with theoretical and technical aspects of the vocation
Free electives
Integrating materials and those meeting common life needs
Variables: exploratory, testing, etc.

DIAGRAM 3.—A DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION OF THE ELEMENTS IN A VOCATIONAL CURRICULUM

(1) those subjects which compose the core of that curriculum and the closely related subjects, differentiating it from other curriculums and chosen with special reference to the purposes of that curriculum—group or curriculum vari-

ables; and (2) those subjects which may be elected by any pupil pursuing a certain curriculum but which are in no case specifically required for the completion of the work of that curriculum—subject variables or electives. The group or curriculum variables in a nonvocational or "liberal" curriculum are represented by the major subject or group of subjects and the closely related minor, in a vocational curriculum by the vocational and closely related technical subjects. The subject variables in either the nonvocational or vocational curriculum are those subjects open to election by the pupil to satisfy his avocational or other intellectual and esthetic interests without regard to the requirements of the particular curriculum pursued.

Suggested principles of curriculum organization.—With this preliminary statement of viewpoint and definition of terms, the statement and discussion of the several principles follow.

1. *The program of each small high school should contain as many curriculums as can be adequately handled by the teaching force with the facilities available.* This principle means that within the limits of its teaching staff and equipment each school should offer a curriculum for every considerable group of pupils, the needs of which demand for their satisfaction a core of subjects different from those specifically selected to meet the needs of other groups. The number of pupils in a particular group should always be sufficiently large to justify the forming of classes in the core subjects of the curriculum. There are no definite criteria available as to the minimum number of pupils for whom a class should be formed in a small high school. Perhaps no fixed number should be set as other factors might in a particular school well enter into consideration. Ordinarily, it would seem that any number less than ten should be regarded as insufficient in the first years with a minimum perhaps of five in the last two years. Some support is given to these estimates by recent studies. The

median and first quartile classes in the small high schools of New York contained 10.2 and 5.3 pupils respectively, and the figures for the high schools of Connecticut and Massachusetts with an enrollment of 100 or fewer pupils were approximately the same.[1] The Committee of Fifteen gives 12.3 as the average size of classes in California high schools with enrollments of 100 or fewer and 11.3 as the median. For schools with enrollments of 101 to 200 the average is 15.9 and the median 15.1.[2] Pupils of all groups may take together the constant subjects and such electives as are common to all curriculums. In case the number of pupils in a group is not large enough to justify classes in the core subjects specifically adapted to their purposes, the needs of such pupils should be met, in so far as possible, through the most closely related curriculum. Further flexibility may be gained also by building curriculums meeting the needs of individual pupils in so far as this can be done through the subjects offered in the school's program.

Where the junior-high-school type of organization is used, distinctly differentiated curriculums should not begin before the last year of the junior high school or the first year of the senior school. Such diversification as is desirable should be made possible in the junior school through subject variables rather than through curriculums. In small communities the junior-high-school curriculum should probably be of the constants-variable type, permitting differentiation and exploration through the group of variables offered. The important point is that in the offering of variables in the junior high school should

[1] Emery N. Ferriss, "The Rural High School," *Rural School Survey of New York State*, Vol. 7, p. 44. Jesse B. Davis, *Organization and Administration of High Schools in the State of Connecticut* (1921), p. 5. "Report on High Schools for the Year 1917," Bulletin No. 5, Massachusetts Board of Education (1918), p. 16.

[2] "Report of the Committee of Fifteen," California High School Teachers Association (1923), p. 41.

be found in its beginnings the core of each of the differentiated curriculums available later in the senior high school. To illustrate, a school offering curriculums in agriculture and home-making in the senior high school should in the junior high school give opportunities for try-out or prevocational work in agriculture and home-making.

2. *The core subjects of each curriculum should be those subjects bearing directly on the attainment of the group of major educational objectives for which the curriculum is designed.* The idea of a curriculum built around a core is old. There have been, however, many interpretations as to what should constitute the core in a secondary school. The core has been commonly interpreted in small high schools as composed of those subjects of a curriculum required as preparation for college. At other times it has been regarded as being made up of those subjects essential or highly desirable for training in health, citizenship, and the use of the vernacular, in other words, those subjects constant in all curriculums. A more recent suggestion is a social-science core. One writer considers the pupil the core. All such interpretations seem to miss the fundamental characteristics of a core subject. Briefly stated, *a secondary-school curriculum is an organization of subjects to meet the educational needs of a group of pupils of similar interests and life purposes.* If this definition of a curriculum is accepted, the core logically becomes those subjects directly appropriate to the attainment of that special group of objectives for which the curriculum is planned, and not those subjects primarily of value in the realization of that group of common objectives considered as desirable goals in the education of all secondary-school pupils. For example, the core of a college preparatory curriculum in science is composed of subjects in science, the core of a college preparatory curriculum in languages is language, while the core of a curriculum in vocational agriculture is made up of vocational subjects in agriculture.

In each case there should be constant elements in English, social science, physical education, hygiene, etc. These constants, however, are not in any true sense the core subjects. They are common to all curriculums. They are the primary means of integration used for the attainment of those ends considered desirable in the education of all secondary pupils while the core subjects are those basic to differentiation in the direction of the major needs and interests of a group of pupils. The core of each curriculum should be composed of those subjects which aid directly in the acquirement of those abilities, skills, elements of knowledge, attitudes, and ideals necessary in reaching that group of objectives peculiar to that curriculum.

3. *The curriculums offered should be of the type best suited to meet the needs of the pupil population of the school.* In determining for any small high school the type of curriculums to be offered, information should be gathered with regard to the economic, vocational, civic, sociability, recreational, intellectual, esthetic, and health status and interests of the community. The resources of the school plant and the possibilities of expansion should be carefully determined. All available facts concerning the present pupil population should be brought together. In addition, a study should be made of the present activities of former pupils, both graduates and nongraduates, over a period of at least five years. The educational assets of all institutions in the community other than the school should be estimated as closely as possible. All of the data acquired should furnish the basis for determining the types of curriculums, both liberal or nonvocational and vocational, to be organized. They should also be utilized in determining the nature of the differentiation to be permitted within each curriculum.

It is a fairly well established principle in vocational curriculums that the content of the core and closely related subjects should reflect in a specific way the vocational ac-

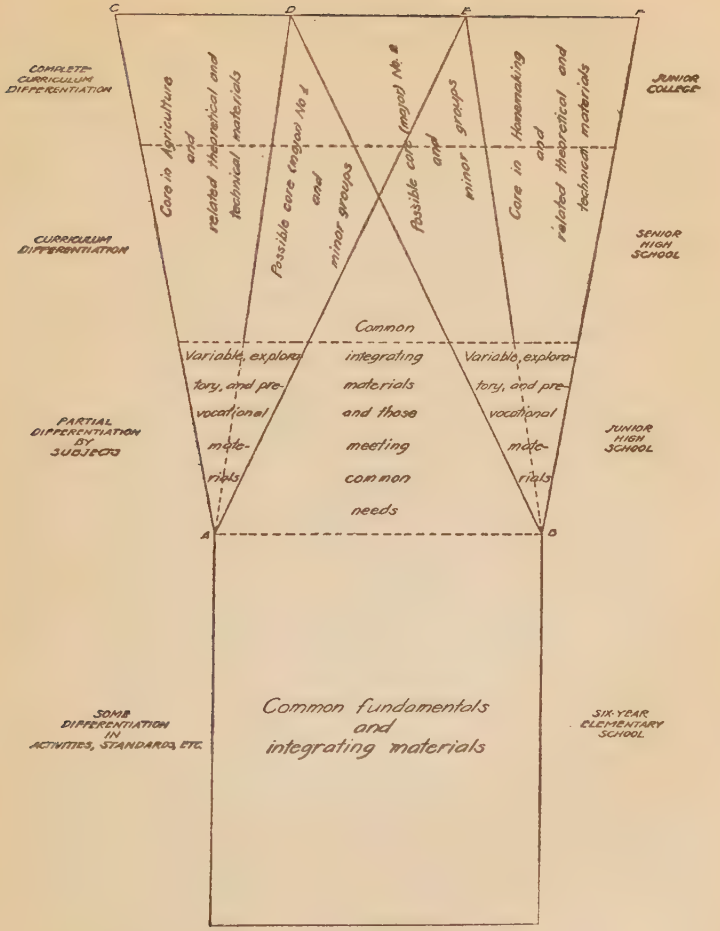
C
D
E
F
COMPLETE CURRICULUM DIFFERENTIATION
JUNIOR COLLEGE
Core in Agriculture and related theoretical and technical materials
Possible core (major) No. 2 and minor groups
Possible core (major) No. 1 and minor groups
Core in Homemaking and related theoretical and technical materials
CURRICULUM DIFFERENTIATION
SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL
Common integrating materials and those meeting common needs
Variable, exploratory, and prevocational materials
Variable, exploratory, and prevocational materials
PARTIAL DIFFERENTIATION BY SUBJECTS
JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL
A
B
SOME DIFFERENTIATION IN ACTIVITIES, STANDARDS, ETC.
Common fundamentals and integrating materials
SIX-YEAR ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

DIAGRAM 4.—A DIAGRAMMATIC REPRESENTATION OF A THREE-CURRICULUM ORGANIZATION IN A JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL WITH POSSIBLE EXTENSION THROUGH THE JUNIOR COLLEGE.

BACD represents a curriculum in agriculture (or some other vocation); BADE, a curriculum of a "liberal" or nonvocational type with a possible variation in major and minor groups; BAEF, a curriculum in home-making.

tivities and needs of the community. The principle has not been recognized with regard to "liberal" or nonvocational curriculums. In small high schools especially, the nonvocational curriculums have been practically the same for all schools of a state, and in some cases uniformity of subject matter has been required. In practically all other cases the textbook used has determined in large measure the educational materials. The bases for variation with respect to nonvocational curriculums in schools serving different communities should be clearly determined, as in the case of vocational curriculums. Such curriculums should be developed with definite reference to the pupil population of the school and the type of community from which the pupils come. They should all contain subjects valuable in the attainment of the subsidiary aims of secondary education. The subjects and subject-matter content, however, should be determined with reference to the educational resources of the community and the needs of the pupils in attaining the several objectives most effectively. Liberal or nonvocational curriculums in particular schools should also give emphasis to such subjects as supply lacks or deficiencies peculiar to the community in the pupils for which they are planned.

In general, every rural and village high school should keep the road open for those pupils who wish to continue their education after graduation from high school. In its "liberal" curriculums it should offer at least the minimum number of subjects required for entrance to the higher institutions to which its graduates ordinarily go. It is to be hoped, however, that these requirements will soon become more functional, more in terms of the quality of the high-school work done and less in terms of traditional, fixed subject requirements. When the number of pupils desiring certain preparatory subjects is very small, or when offering the preparatory subjects means sacrificing the best interests of the majority of pupils, it might be more prac-

ticable to send such pupils to another school during the last year or two of their course. As suggested in another chapter, a group of neighboring high schools might find it advisable to coöperate for the purpose of increasing the curriculum offerings of the group. Under the junior-senior plan of organization the preparatory function should be considered only in the senior high school. In small communities under this type of organization, all preparatory work might be given in a central senior high school.

In a school so small in number of pupils attending and in size of teaching force as to make impracticable more than one curriculum, this curriculum should ordinarily be of the "liberal" or nonvocational type. It should, if possible, contain among its variables subjects of vocational bearing chosen in the light of the vocational needs of the community. In a larger high school capable of maintaining three curriculums, in addition to a "liberal" curriculum there should in most instances be a curriculum in homemaking of either the nonvocational or the vocational type. A third curriculum of a vocational type, to be determined by the findings of the preliminary survey as to the most urgent educational needs of the community from a vocational standpoint, should ordinarily be offered.

4. *The prevailing characteristic of any secondary-school curriculum should be that of extensity or diversity in the earlier years gradually changing toward intensity or concentration in the later years.* Under the plan of organization commonly followed at the present time, especially in the small high schools, the curriculum in the first two years is narrow and is composed largely or entirely of required subjects. Opportunities for differentiation through election are afforded only in the third and fourth years. This plan of curriculum organization is based on the theory that pupils in the early years of the high school are not prepared to elect subjects intelligently, though they are often asked to choose curriculums, a much more serious

matter. It has also been due in part to a false notion as to the subjects to be considered as constants. Generally, the subjects basic to a college preparatory curriculum have been regarded as both the desirable constants and the core subjects for all secondary-school curriculums. As a result, all pupils have been required to take a foreign language, algebra and geometry, and ancient and medieval history or general history as the backbone of their work in the first two years. Thus the work of these years has been largely in subjects valuable primarily to those carrying their work beyond the high school. It has emphasized subjects of deferred values—and those probably to be realized finally only by the few—rather than subjects rich in immediate values for the many. This plan of organization has tended to do three things. In the first place, it has disregarded the needs of the majority of the pupils in the average small high school; in the second place, it has hindered the adaptation of the work to the capacities, aptitudes, and interests of the pupils and to the activities of the community; and in the third place, it has made practically impossible any system of guidance or exploration through the curriculum.

The observance of the principle of extensity to intensity should operate to remove such weaknesses in the small secondary school. It stresses the importance of many and varied contacts for the pupil beginning his secondary-school work and requires him to concentrate gradually, as he finds himself, on a line of work clearly differentiated as to its core or major subjects. This is consistent with the theory of both junior- and senior-high-school education and with the growth in definiteness of the interests, aptitudes, and purposes of secondary-school pupils. To give a pupil at the beginning of his secondary-school career a broad range of educational experiences closely related to contemporaneous life is probably to give him the maximum in the way of liberal training, particularly if he leaves school

early. It also gives the best opportunity for self-discovery. On the other hand, if he remains in school, he is given an opportunity to find himself before entering on a differentiated curriculum in the senior high school. Extensity or diversity in the early years of the secondary school tends to counteract any tendency to undue specialization. Gradual increase in intensity or concentration in the later years on a narrower group of core subjects gives continuity to the pupil's work and does not permit of haphazard election.

There are at least three methods of obtaining extensity in the early part of the curriculum of the small secondary school: (1) by placing in the early years subjects broad in scope, such as general science, general mathematics, projects in community civics and history, and prevocational work in agriculture, shop, domestic arts, etc.; (2) by offering diversification through variables of the regular academic type adapted to the pupil's capacities and interests and required for only comparatively short periods of time; and (3) by a combination of (1) and (2). Under the junior-senior plan extensity should be the prevailing characteristic of at least the first two years, gradually changing toward concentration on a distinctly differentiated curriculum in the senior-high-school period. Under the four-year high-school plan extensity should be the prevailing characteristic at least during the first year. In the last three years of the four-year high school, or in the senior-high-school period, the curriculum should concentrate more and more on the subjects composing the core and the closely related subjects. In this period election should be restricted largely to subjects taught primarily from the appreciational or avocational standpoint, such as music, literature, art, etc. In addition, some variation might be permitted within the core subjects in the case of pupils who are particularly interested in a certain subject within the core.

5. *Every time unit of each curriculum should contain subjects or subject-matter elements of immediate values,*

the relative number and amount, in general, being inversely proportional to the amount of time available for training through that curriculum. A time unit is thought of as a semester or shorter term considered from the administrative standpoint as a unit in the organization of the work of the school. In the organization of any curriculum the maturity, interests, and needs of all of the pupils pursuing the work of any time unit should be the first consideration. Such consideration will help to determine the place of each subject, or element of subject matter, in harmony with economy in the learning process. It emphasizes at each stage the subject, or phases of a subject, best adapted to the pupil. Each time unit should be developed with cognizance of the fact that some pupils will probably go no further and hence should contain educative materials of immediate, negotiable values in life activities.

The application of this principle bears also on the problems of selection and organization of subject matter within the subjects themselves, as has been hinted at in the discussion. The consideration of such problems, however, lies beyond the scope of the present chapter and will be taken up later.

As curriculum building for small secondary schools develops a more scientific technic, curriculums of varying lengths will be evolved to meet the needs of the various types of pupils whom the schools should serve. The beginning of curriculums of different lengths is already to be found in vocational training for persons not able to attend the entire school year yet desiring to improve themselves in more or less specific directions. The future will probably see "liberal" or nonvocational curriculums in small senior high schools specially planned for persons continuing their education under similar difficulties. As curriculums of this type develop, the fifth principle will become increasingly important. *The less time available for the work toward the specific objectives of a particular cur-*

riculum, the greater should be the emphasis on subjects or phases of subjects of immediate values and the less on abstract, theoretical, and technical subjects or phases of subjects or subjects and subject-matter elements only indirectly related to the objectives fundamental to the curriculum. In other words, the relative amount of time given to the core subjects should be inversely proportional to the length of the curriculum. As an illustration, a four-month curriculum in home-making or agriculture should be almost entirely limited to core materials of immediate values. A four-year curriculum in either field, however, may well give a considerable proportion of its time to material of a theoretical and technical nature, to the economic and sociological principles underlying vocational activities, and to subjects of indirect and appreciational values. Likewise, a three- or four-year "liberal" curriculum in the regular school should have a relatively smaller proportion of its subjects of immediate values than a one- or two-year "liberal" curriculum of secondary grade designed to meet the needs of the pupils of a continuation school.

6. *In liberal curriculums, subjects primarily preparatory to work in higher institutions of learning should come in the later years of the secondary school; likewise, in vocational curriculums, a large proportion of the theoretical and technical materials should be placed in the later years.* As regards vocational curriculums, this principle should not be interpreted as excluding certain subject-matter elements of a theoretical or technical nature intimately related to the project work of the earlier years. Neither does it mean that the theoretical and technical materials in the later years are to be treated necessarily as separate or distinct subjects. The principle is based on the relative values of the subjects in meeting the needs of the greater number of pupils. It follows the assumption that there will always be in the secondary school a relatively large number of pupils who will either not complete the work of any

curriculum or never go beyond the secondary school. It emphasizes with the fifth principle the desirability of organizing the work of the school at every stage to meet most directly the needs of the majority rather than the minority of the pupils. Both principles call attention to the fact that the length of the pupil's secondary-school life is an important factor in ordering his work.

7. *Within the limits of the teaching force and the number of pupils, every curriculum should offer a variety of subjects directly proportional to the time available for training through that curriculum.* In junior high schools this is a question of offering in addition to the constants as wide a range of variables of all types as possible. In large senior or four-year high schools with large teaching forces and with large groups of pupils with similar aims, the organization of distinctly differentiated curriculums can be effected. Such schools can offer several curriculums of a "liberal" or academic type, meeting the needs both of those pupils preparing to enter higher institutions of one kind or another and of those pupils not going beyond the high school. They can also offer opportunities for vocational education in several fields. The small senior high school or four-year high school with its limitations cannot offer many curriculums and hence cannot differentiate so closely as the large school. As a consequence, its less clearly differentiated curriculums make desirable greater opportunity for diversification within each curriculum, with regard both to subjects within the core and to subjects outside the core. To meet, in so far as possible, the wider and more varied range of interests, abilities, and aptitudes of the less homogeneous groups of pupils pursuing any particular curriculum, the small high school should offer variety within each curriculum. The amount of variety possible will depend on the teaching load of the instructors and on the number of pupils desiring any particular subject. In any curriculum the amount of time necessary

for teaching the core subjects will also be a determining factor.

8. *Each curriculum, with respect both to subjects and to subject matter, should be flexible and elastic to permit of adaptation to changing objectives resulting from changes in the needs of society and differences peculiar to communities, to permit of the presentation of subject-matter elements in normal situations and according to the best methods, and to permit the use of more effective subject-matter elements as discovered.* No curriculum or curriculum organization for secondary schools based on sound principles can ever be considered as a finished product. It must always be in the making. It should be an instrument subject to modification as the work for which it is designed changes, or as the means of accomplishing the ends desired change. One great weakness of secondary education, particularly in small high schools, has been, and still is, its lack of flexibility and elasticity. It is important that it be modifiable as demands are altered. It is highly important that its effectiveness be measured, not on the basis of what justification can be found for the existence of any curriculum as it is, but rather on the basis of how it should be altered to become more functional. The procedure in the organization of any curriculum should be from the needs of the learner and society *in* to the curriculum rather than from the curriculum *out*.

The curriculum in the junior high school.—In the junior high school, curriculums as such should not be distinctly differentiated, at least in the first two years. The proportion of time devoted to subjects of the constants type will necessarily be large. In the junior high school the variables offered are the principal means of providing for diversification in the direction of the pupils' capacities and interests. The variables should be as numerous as possible and should offer as many different kinds of educational activities as the resources of the school will permit. Every

junior high school should offer as variables subjects which supply the beginnings of the core in each of the differentiated curriculums in the senior high school. They should be considered primarily for their exploratory or guidance and prevocational values. Pupils should be permitted to choose their variables under sympathetic guidance and should be required to pursue a variable when chosen but a relatively short period of time. These variables should be organized to give actual values for the time taken. Where the resources of the school make it possible, a number of variables organized in short-time units and representing a variety of types of activities might be required of all pupils as exploratory work. If interested and apt, a pupil should be permitted to give a gradually increasing amount of time to a chosen subject which then may expand naturally into the group of closely related subjects forming the major or core of his senior-high-school curriculum. A pupil should not, however, be required to continue as his major line of work in the senior high school the subject which possessed his major interest in the junior school. Where the four-year high-school plan is followed, the work of the first year should approximate the junior-high-school type of organization to give the pupil, as far as possible, the opportunity for exploration and discovery before selecting a definite curriculum for the last three years.

The curriculum in the senior high school.—In the senior high school or in the last three years of the four-year high school, curriculum differentiation should be as clearly marked as the resources of the school make practicable. The proportion of time given to the core subjects and related groups should gradually increase. Each curriculum should contain subjects of the constants type, such as English, physical education and hygiene, and elements of social science, regarded as essential in civic education, the proportion of time devoted to such subjects gradually decreasing as the minimal requirements for the

common objectives are met. Through every curriculum should run a margin of subjects of the elective type.

Illustrative curriculums.—As an illustration of the plan of curriculum organization presented, two suggestive skeleton curriculums are given on pages 112 and 113, the first for pupils whose major interest is science; the second for pupils wishing to pursue their major work in agriculture.

Requirements for graduation.—With its limitations the small high school cannot offer a large number of curriculums. Its problem is to give its pupils the most it can in the way of secondary education of a functional character. Hence it must determine the nature of its work more carefully even than the larger urban high school. So far as it can differentiate, the differentiation should be in the direction of serving best the needs of the greatest number of pupils. The absolute requirements for graduation so far as subjects are concerned should be in terms of the constants—those subjects essential in the attainment of the objectives common to all secondary education in the fields of the vernacular, health, civic responsibility, and service. In addition, there should be the varying requirement that each pupil's work should represent a desirable amount of continuity or concentration as well as breadth. For a nonvocational curriculum this may be expressed, as an explanation of the principles stated, in terms of three units representing the core or major interest of the pupil, two units in a closely related group of subjects, and two units in any other subject group. In a vocational curriculum the requirements become the constants, the vocational core, and the technical and theoretical materials taught either as parts of the core or as distinct subjects.

Individual curriculums.—In the smaller schools where facilities are not such as to permit of distinctly differentiated curriculums, each pupil may be permitted under guidance to plan his own curriculum within the limits of the school's program, this curriculum to contain the con-

ILLUSTRATION I.—A FOUR-YEAR SKELETON CURRICULUM DESIGNED FOR PUPILS WHOSE MAJOR INTEREST IS SCIENCE[1]

	Constants	Curriculum Variables			Subject Variables or Electives
		Core	Closely Related Minor	Remotely Related Minor	
FIRST YEAR...	English 5 Physical Education 2 Extraclass Activities 1	General Science 5	General Mathematics *or* Algebra 5	Foreign Language *or* History 5	Music Art Shop Agriculture Home Economics History *or* Language, etc.
SECOND YEAR...	English 5 Physical Education 2 Extraclass Activities 1	Biology 5	Plane Geometry 5	Foreign Language *or* History	Music Art Shop Agriculture Home Economics Foreign Language *or* History, etc.
THIRD YEAR...	American History and Government[2] 5 Physical Education 2	Physics *or* Chemistry 5			Any subjects not in required groups as English, etc.
FOURTH YEAR ..	Physical Education 2	Chemistry *or* Physics 5			Any subjects not in required groups

[1] Pupils pursuing this curriculum are required to take the three units in constants, in addition to physical education and extraclass activities; three core units in science; two units in the closely related minor group;

ILLUSTRATION II.—A FOUR-YEAR SKELETON CURRICULUM FOR PUPILS STUDYING AGRICULTURE[3]

	Constants	Curriculum Variables			Subject Variables or Electives
		Core	Closely Related Group	Remotely Related Group	
FIRST YEAR...	English 5 Physical Education 2 Extraclass Activities 1	Agricultural Practices, etc.	Subjects dealing with the theory and technical aspects of agriculture[4]	Mathematics *or* Social Science, etc.	Any subjects not required in the constant group or in the curriculum variables
SECOND YEAR...	English 5 Physical Education 2 Extraclass Activities 1				
THIRD YEAR...	American History and Government[2] 5 Physical Education 2	Agricultural Projects			
FOURTH YEAR ...	Physical Education 2				

and two units in a remotely related group. The four units in the minor groups may be completed any time within the four years. In the remotely related minor group two units of any subject in the electives might be substituted for the subjects suggested.

[2] American History and Government may be taken either in the third or fourth year. In a four-year high school it would probably be desirable to place as an additional constant in the first year community civics and occupations.

[3] Pupils following the curriculum in agriculture, must, in addition to the requirements in constants, take at least three core units, two units in the closely related minor, and two units in some other subject fields.

[4] Not to be regarded as necessarily separate or distinct from the vocational core.

stants, three core units in a subject or group of closely related subjects, and at least one other group of two units. Any pupil successfully pursuing work meeting these requirements and possessing sufficient elective units to make the total number required for graduation should be eligible for graduation. Such a plan would give the maximum of flexibility to the work of the small school and would at the same time ensure the desirable amount of concentration and breadth in the training of each pupil.

Problems

1. Analyze carefully the principle that differentiation in the junior high school should be primarily governed through subjects and in the senior high school through curriculums.
2. Why should the junior-high-school curriculum be characterized by breadth or extensity and the senior-high-school curriculum by relative intensity or concentration?
3. What are the implications of continuity and diversity in curriculum organization?
4. Evaluate relative to the individual interests, aptitudes, and purposes of the pupil the theory of a constant or social core for all secondary-school curriculums as contrasted with the theory of a variable core determined with reference to the needs of pupil groups with similar interests and purposes.
5. Discuss the soundness of the theory that in every time unit of a secondary-school curriculum the content should be determined relative to the most common needs of the pupils pursuing that curriculum.

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CHAPTER VI

EDUCATIONAL MATERIALS AND MEANS IN THE SMALL SECONDARY SCHOOL

Objectives, curriculums, etc., as educational means.—Educational objectives, curriculum, subject matter, and method are meaningless in themselves. They are but means to an end. They are intimately related, but their relationship becomes vital only when they are combined and used with reference to the education of some individual. The development of the individual is the end. Their joint function is the promotion and guidance of that development in the direction of individual and social efficiency. This implies that objectives, subject matter, its selection and organization into subjects and curriculums, and its method of presentation, should be conducive at all times to the individual's maximum development both as an individual and as a member of society. The determination of objectives and the organization of curriculums in the secondary school have already been discussed from the point of view of life activities. In the present chapter some of the problems of subject matter and other educational means are approached from a similar point of view.

Present lack of criteria for selection and organization of subject matter.—At the present time the bases for the selection and organization of subject matter in the small secondary school are usually vague and indefinite. This state of affairs exists in large part because of lack of definite objectives and the consequent failure to think of subject matter in terms of specific purposes to be served. The content of courses, with the possible exception of voca-

tional courses, and the organization of this content, has in most studies been determined by the textbook used. Sometimes it has depended upon a state course of study uniform for all the high schools of a state. In neither case has either content or organization been determined relative to the experience background, interests, or purposes of any particular group of pupils. They have not been made with reference to the needs of the pupils of any particular community.

As with the curriculum as a whole, faith, custom, and tradition have, in the main, determined the content to be used; and the logical relationships of the various elements, the organization of the courses of study.

Overemphasis of theory of social inheritance.—To place the pupil in possession of his social inheritance has, as a theory, influenced in a general fashion the subject matter used in the secondary school. Usually, however, little or no critical analysis has been made of the relative values of the things inherited in relation to life to-day. Much of our social inheritance might well be discarded so far as the major proportion of people is concerned. Often, it seems, the portions of the youth's inheritance into the possession of which he comes through his secondary-school training have been the more or less outworn articles stored in his ancestor's garret or basement. Too frequently, they have not been the treasures which appeal to the youth of to-day because of their values in his adolescent activities, intellectual, recreational, esthetic, or otherwise; nor have they had negotiable values anywhere near par as capital to be invested in the activities of modern adult society in which he is ambitious to become an efficient participant. This does not mean that subject matter should be eliminated because of age. It means rather that no favors should be granted because of age. Subject matter should be selected on the basis of actual values, in so far as they can be determined, in human affairs of the present.

Often, too, the values of much of the subject matter in secondary-school courses have been realizable by only a select group of pupils possessing either superior mental endowment or relatively rare intellectual interests, or both.

Life activities as a guide.—The viewpoint that the educational activities of the school should be based upon the activities of society clarifies the problem of subject matter and at the same time indicates difficulties. It clarifies the problem by showing the source of educational objectives and thus indicates more or less definitely the instructional materials to be used. It points out the difficulties by showing the necessity of possessing facts not only with regard to human activities and their characteristics but with regard to their status in particular communities and regions. It shows clearly the necessity of knowing the differences in the demands made upon individuals in different economic, civic, sociability, and vocational groups. It holds forth the promise that, as the analysis of human activities proceeds and as definite educational objectives are set up as goals to be attained, the values of units of subject matter can be determined with increasing accuracy. Even now with what is known, teachers and others directing secondary education can do much toward giving to secondary-school subjects more functional content.

The textbook as a determiner of teaching materials.—In the small high school the textbook used has been the most important factor directly operating in determining the selection and organization of subject matter. In the majority of small schools it has been practically the only source of content in many subjects. The textbook writer and textbook companies have naturally been interested in producing a book that would have a wide sale rather than one peculiarly adapted to the needs of a special region. Whatever adaptations have been made have ordinarily been with

reference to the demands of urban high schools, the heaviest buyers.

Until recent years practically all textbooks for secondary schools were written by college or university specialists who had no direct contact with secondary-school pupils and who consequently had little or no understanding of the capacities, interests, or needs of adolescents. They attacked the problem of organization from the viewpoint of one who, having become master of a field of learning, saw its elements in their logical relationships rather than from the angle of the learner's interests or needs. Viewing the subject also with reference to the needs of a specialist rather than those of the average individual, they often aimed at completeness of presentation and not at the selection and development of phases of significant values in the everyday activities of life. The use of such textbooks in the secondary school, particularly where they were practically the only source, has usually resulted in a formal, memoriter type of instruction.

Illustrative materials in textbooks.—Illustrative materials in the textbook are chosen by the writer of the book either on the basis of his own personal experience or on what he considers their wide applicability. They cannot be chosen with reference to their fitness for pupils of a particular locality. Often within the community where the school is situated are illustrative materials already known to the pupil and only waiting to be linked up with the work of the school to give both greater meaning. Two striking examples of the failure to adapt content to pupils' experiences observed by the writer may serve to illustrate this point. A high-school teacher in a southwestern state spent the class period in general science discussing with his class the effects of the wind upon the earth's surface, using as illustrations the Sahara Desert and the sand dunes along Lake Michigan, mentioned by the text used. While the recitation was in progress an excellent demonstration

of the phenomenon was being given within sight of the school, and three miles away were shifting sand dunes known probably to every pupil in the room. In another state a teacher devoted almost the whole period talking about the tsetse fly as an example of insects injurious to man while the malarial mosquito was undoubtedly waiting just outside the village. Often in the natural and social sciences not only is there abundance of material all about the school, but discoveries, inventions, events, etc., are holding the center of the stage in the interests of both pupils and society in general and would if utilized supply the most vital materials for instructional purposes. Their use would aid in developing in pupils the problem attitude toward factors in their own environment. These materials the textbook cannot contain.

Adaptation of subject matter to the pupil.—Subject matter should be adapted to the interests and experience background of the pupil. It should have significant bearing upon the activities of the pupil and of society. This does not mean that the educational activities of the school should be limited to the resources of the community, but that ordinarily where such resources exist they furnish a point of attack and should be the first materials utilized. The radius of the circle from within which materials of significant values may be drawn ultimately is limited only by the time available, the interest of the pupil, and the objectives guiding the work of the course.

Selection of subject matter by the pupil.—Secondary-school instructors frequently select the content to be used where the selection might better be made wholly or in part by the pupil himself. The purpose of oral or written expression is to convey to others in an effective manner a series of ideas about a definite *something*. Unless that *something* is known to the pupil, and unless he feels that he should tell others about it, to make them understand, appreciate, or act with respect to it, he has nothing to

express. Hence the conditions for obtaining the objectives pertaining to expression of ideas are most favorable when the pupil selects largely on his own responsibility the materials for his own training in expression. Other examples without number might be cited in the fields of literature, natural science, the social sciences, art, and vocational subjects where the pupil rather than the teacher might well select, under guidance to be sure, a large part of the materials to be used, to the benefit of the educational experiences resulting.

Suggested criteria for selection of subject matter.—From the single curriculum of the junior-high-school period with gradually increasing opportunity for differentiation through variable subjects to the distinct curriculums of the senior high school or junior college, the curriculum should be designed to meet at every stage the needs of all the pupils pursuing that curriculum. Hence it follows that in any study the content should be chosen primarily with reference to the needs of all the pupils as determined by the objectives of the curriculum in which the subject is taught. Upon these premises it is possible to suggest tentatively at least certain principles for subject-matter selection. It is not assumed that these principles are final or that with our present knowledge they can be accurately or infallibly applied. It is believed, however, that they may even under present conditions be very helpful in placing instruction in the high school upon a functional basis.

Subject matter should be selected on the basis of:

1. Its direct values in giving the pupil the knowledges, abilities, habits, skills, appreciations, etc., desirable in the activities to which the objectives of the course pertain.
2. The relative number of individuals who will use the knowledges, abilities, habits, skills, etc., and
   (*a*) the frequency of their use
   (*b*) the certainty of their use
   (*c*) their importance when used

3. Its adaptability to the learner's stage of maturity.
4. Its appeal to the learner.
5. Its requirement in terms of time and effort.
6. The degree to which it can be used in a natural setting.
7. The intimacy of its relationship with the other elements of subject matter used in the development of a topic, type, problem, or project.

The problem of transfer of training.—While the question of transfer of training has not been definitely settled, the burden of proof is strongly against the view that powers gained in one type of experience are equally effective in meeting other types of situations. Experimental psychology is gradually increasing the amount of data supporting the view that the increments of learning gained in reacting to one situation give one command over another only to the extent that common elements of content or method exist. All indicate that the safest course for the teacher to pursue is to select subject-matter materials primarily with reference to their direct values in actual life activities in so far as these can be determined. Some would include potential values as a measure. However, potential if interpreted broadly enough, may be made to include practically everything and hence would seem to be of slight value in the selection of teaching content. Recent studies give considerable support to the idea that the greatest disciplinary values are to be realized through the study of materials of most interest to the individual.[1] This further supports the principle that subject matter in the secondary school should be chosen on the basis of its direct bearing upon the activities of life in so far as this can be determined, and the pupil's interests and purposes as indicated by the objectives of the curriculum he has chosen.

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[1] E. L. Thorndike, "Disciplinary Values of Studies in the Opinion of Students," *Teachers College Record,* Vol. 25 (March, 1924), pp. 134-143.

The choice of subject matter for a particular curriculum.—Assuming that the secondary-school curriculum, as developed according to the principles stated in Chapter V, is designed to meet in the most effective way the needs of all pupils pursuing it, the applicability of the second principle suggested with its three corollaries seems evident. Ordinarily, the essentials of a study should be those necessary for the performance on the part of all pupils enrolled in that curriculum of the activities represented in its objectives. Hence the problem to be solved first, with regard to any subject matter tentatively selected on the basis of principle one, is the proportion of the pupils who will use the knowledge, skill, etc., acquired. Where the subject is a constant, required of all pupils, the content should be determined relative to the most common needs of all pupils. Where the subject is a variable, its content should be determined relative to the most common needs of the group of pupils studying it. The second related problem is the frequency of use. In most cases, the relative proportion of pupils using the knowledge, skills, etc., acquired, and the frequency of use, should be the prime determining factors. On the other hand, ability or skill used but infrequently, if of sufficient importance when used, should not be neglected. In either case the certainty of its use is an important factor in selection. An example might be first aid treatment to a person with a broken limb. Examples illustrating the second principle may be suggested as follows. Ability to write a friendly letter is an acquirement almost certain to be frequently needed by practically all individuals; ability to write a colorful description of an autumn sunset is for the majority of people less useful and less frequently needed; while ability to compose a Miltonian sonnet is rarely useful and more rarely needed. In secondary-school English the first ability should probably be regarded as a desirable requirement; the other abilities might well be acquired by those

capable and interested but should not be required. Skill in using a simple arithmetical equation, skill in using algebraic equations containing two unknowns, and skill in using a quadratic equation containing radicals are other examples of acquirements needed by a rapidly decreasing proportion of individuals in their everyday activities. High-school instructors frequently neglect to take these principles into account in determining the objectives of high-school studies and the subject matter to be employed. They often work toward the acquirement by all pupils of knowledges, abilities, etc., useful to them as teachers in their teaching, to certain pupils preparing for college, or for specific callings which demand such special abilities. They fail to distinguish between the needs of the average person and the needs of the person who is a specialist in that field.

The maturity of the pupil as a factor.—Subject matter should be chosen with reference to the pupil's maturity. Pupils in different groups may be working toward the same major objectives. The specific objectives, however, indicating the actual goals which a particular group should be expected to attain by a given time must be based upon the pupil's maturity and previous experience. Hence the nature of the subject matter used must be determined accordingly. Both the pupil's stage of maturity and his experience background play a part also in deciding the appeal that materials with which he works have for him. His purpose is another factor. For a pupil beginning junior high school the best material for learning history may be biography or stories in history; for a twelfth-grade pupil the study of materials portraying the industrial, economic, intellectual, and political phases of history as such may offer the best approach. In both cases the previous training of the pupil and the affairs of life as he understands them have a bearing upon what appeals to him and what is adapted to his needs.

Natural or normal setting.—The degree to which subject matter may be used in a natural or normal setting should be a determining factor in its selection. In certain of the sciences, and particularly in vocational courses as agriculture and home-making, it is sometimes a matter of community sources, or seasonal appropriateness, or project needs. In other subjects it may be a matter of natural sequence as determined by the problems being considered, or by current events in human affairs.

Relationship of the element of subject matter with other elements.—Another principle that should operate in determining content is the intimacy of the relationship of the element of subject matter being considered with the other elements necessary in developing a selected topic, type, problem, or project. While occasionally an element of subject matter may have values in itself sufficient to justify its use, the fact that it is unrelated should cause it to be regarded with suspicion. Likewise a closely related element but not necessary to the attainment of the objectives of the course should be eliminated at least as a requirement.

Subject matter and objectives.—Often in the matter of performance, or doing, the objectives will determine the subject matter definitely or within very narrow limits; at other times considerable latitude for choice will be left. In the attainment of objectives pertaining to tastes, attitudes, appreciations, and those standards and ideals which are desirable concomitants of all or a wide range of activities, the possible range in the selection of subject matter is practically without limit. In the appreciation of art and literature, for example, every pupil might use actual materials different from every other pupil and yet all develop desirable tastes, standards, and appreciations. The same may also be said of the development of desirable attitudes and appreciations relative to science and history. This fact of the multiplicity of avenues through which tastes, appreciations, attitudes, etc., can be acquired has not been

sufficiently recognized in small high schools. In English, for example, a few selected classics are read by all pupils and critically analyzed. The teacher of literature is urged to make the courses in literature as difficult as those in mathematics and foreign language, for example. A much better procedure would seem to be wide reading with much latitude as to materials to be read by different individuals and with considerable flexibility in standards. It should also be kept in mind that the habits of reading, the attitudes toward reading, and the appreciations most valuable to the average person are those closely related to what he does or will do in his everyday life.

Subject matter and method as complements.—Attention should be called to the fact that the attainment of educational objectives is not alone a question of subject matter. Method and subject matter are not distinct, but complementary, elements in the educative process. They operate together in determining the character of any educational experience, though varying relatively in importance. In some cases the method used may be fairly effective in obtaining through the subject matter used the knowledges, skills, and abilities pertinent to the attainment of one or a number of objectives and yet be directly antagonistic to the attainment of other objectives universally desirable. For example, open-mindedness, a rational attitude, punctuality in the performance of tasks, and the acceptance of personal responsibility for results, are characteristics in the attainment of which method rather than subject matter is of relatively greater importance. The method used in presenting subject matter should be such as to promote in each pupil the development of those commonly desirable qualities.

Organization with reference to objectives and pupil's stage of learning.—The organization and order of subject-matter units in any secondary-school course should be decided according to the stage of learning represented by the

pupils concerned and the grouping of the educational objectives guiding the educative process. It cannot be a fixed organization or a fixed order. It cannot, in general, be the order and organization represented by any particular textbook. It should be that most natural for the learners concerned. The approach to any subject will be determined by the experience of the pupils and their interests.

Assuming that the educational objectives guiding the work in a certain study are determined, graded, and arranged with reference to the maturity, interests, and experience backgrounds of pupils, as well as to life needs, elements of subject matter should be organized on the basis of the natural grouping for attaining the objectives set up. In the junior high school, where broad educational contacts are desirable, and where the major emphasis is upon those objectives common to the education of all pupils, it will represent breadth. It will be such as to include a wide variety of subject-matter units. In the senior high school, and to even a greater extent in the junior college, where the needs to be satisfied are more often those of a particular group of pupils, and where subjects are more distinct, more exclusive, the organization will represent relative intensity rather than breadth. In each case, each unit of subject matter should be considered in connection with the other units related to the attainment of the same end or ends. This means that subject matter should be organized in working units suitable for the consideration of a problem, a major topic, a type, or a project. Where the project is used the organization should be that suitable for the solution, as met, of the problems or difficulties that arise in carrying through the project. As problems and projects are most vital and effective when they develop out of the daily work of a class, it follows that the organization of any course should vary for different groups of pupils. The whole may be stated as the psychological order and organization of subject matter.

The elimination of subject matter.—The selection and organization of subject matter relative to definite, well-defined objectives based upon the actual activities of adolescents and society should result in the elimination of much now contained in the majority of textbooks and courses of study. It should result in the treatment of significant topics, problems, types, etc., and consequently in the use of materials pertaining to them. It should break up the encyclopedic, logical treatment of subjects now so common in courses of study in small high schools where the textbook has in large measure determined both the content and organization of the course. Particularly in secondary-school history, where hundreds of items have been taught merely because they were considered to be facts, it should result in the use of less material, but of materials of significant values because of their bearing upon human affairs to-day. For example, in courses organized in accordance with some such principles as those suggested, pupils would not be required to memorize the order of battle at Lake Trasimenus or Gettysburg, or the details of the Athenian acropolis, and many other facts of significance only to the specialist in history, in military strategy, in art, or some other special field. In science, it should result in the treatment of problems, types, and phenomena of science selected on the basis of the pupil's experience, capacity, and interests, and their significance for the everyday activities of life.

Differentiation according to needs.—The day has passed, if it ever was, when all educated persons can know all things. Even the secondary-school pupil must be permitted, within limits perhaps, to select on the basis of his interests, aptitudes, and life purposes. At all events, the selection and organization of the materials with which he works should be made with reference to his needs. The content of all studies should be determined and organized according to the ends each study serves in the particular

curriculum in which it is found. In the small high school where all pupils, regardless of the curriculum pursued, study many subjects in the same classes, this presents a serious problem which probably cannot be completely solved. In part it may be by emphasizing at all times the selection and organization that meets best the needs of the major proportion of pupils enrolled. Further adjustment may be made by permitting partial differentiation for different pupils according to their particular needs and interests through individual or small-group problems and projects.

The need of increased facilities in the small high school.—To meet effectively the demands of a secondary education promoting the development of health, economic, civic, sociability, intellectual, recreational, esthetic, and religious efficiency the small secondary school must have greater facilities than are at present possessed by a considerable proportion of rural and village high schools. These facilities cannot be reckoned alone in terms of classrooms, teachers, curriculums, or subject matter as ordinarily conceived. They must include gymnasiums and playgrounds, auditoriums, laboratories, shops, libraries, and utilized educational resources of the community. Secondary education based upon life activities is not merely the acquirement of items of knowledge. Of much greater importance is the acquirement of abilities, habits, attitudes, appreciations, standards, and ideals. The gaining of knowledge is an essential part, but only a part, and is important only as it is related to those other things.

Health education.—Important phases of modern health education are suitable physical exercise and the development of health habits through practice. To carry out successfully any adequate program of health education requires a gymnasium and playground space suitable and sufficiently ample for the accommodation of the games and other forms of physical exercise and recreation desirable for

adolescent boys and girls. The development of desirable civic and general social habits, attitudes, insights, and ideals cannot be fully realized in the classroom. It requires an auditorium where the school as a whole can promote its activities as a school community. The auditorium should have at least a stage and curtains and a piano. In some of the new smaller high schools the auditorium and gymnasium are combined in one room on the ground floor. When well planned, such a combination room is economical and also provides a room convenient for community activities.

Try-out and prevocational work.—For try-out and prevocational work in the junior high school, and for vocational courses in the senior high school, shops for both boys and girls are essential. To make meaningful facts and principles of science, to give concreteness to scientific method, and to develop in connection with actual situations habits of initiative and inquiry, both junior and senior high schools must be equipped with laboratories. The equipment of these laboratories should not be evaluated in terms of cost, the basis used in many states, but on the basis of the degree to which it meets the requirements of the work that should be done by the school as determined by the objectives of the courses offered. The shops fitted for try-out or prevocational work should be equipped to afford opportunity for a variety of activities pertinent to the development of many of the simpler abilities, skills, etc., common to groups of related occupations. The vocational shops should be equipped with reference to the demands of the vocation studied, particularly to those demands which are determined by the conditions under which the vocation is carried on in the community. The equipment of the laboratories should be suited primarily to the performance of those experiments adapted to the maturity of secondary-school pupils and of significance in the application of science to everyday life. The adequacy of a

secondary-school laboratory or shop is not so much a matter of the expensiveness of its equipment as its usability.

The school library.—The library is one of the weakest features of the average rural or village high school. In many schools it is inconveniently situated, poorly equipped, and poorly organized. If the high school of the small community is to afford educational opportunities at all modern or commensurate with those of the urban school, it must have better library facilities than are ordinarily available at the present time.

Modern secondary education is more than the memorization of a textbook. It often involves, or should involve, the collection, evaluation, and organization of facts from many sources. It is concerned with the development of habits of reading and the formation of attitudes, tastes, and appreciations through reading. Its aim is not alone to have a pupil acquire information, but to help him to become acquainted with sources of information and, to give him training in methods of using these sources when needed. Emphasizing as it does a close relationship between school activities and the activities of society, it must often employ educational materials to be found only in recent books, bulletins, and periodicals. Finally, it should give the pupil of superior abilities opportunity to develop his talents to their maximum. All these things require a good school library accessible to pupils throughout the school day, from which books and other materials may be drawn under reasonable regulations.

Through his reading in the library the pupil may well gain much of the most valuable part of his education in literature, science, and the social sciences. Thus in a natural way he is led to develop tastes, appreciations, and standards relative to those subjects far beyond the possibilities of ordinary classroom work. He is encouraged in the development of habits of reading for information and as a form of recreation. He is given also the opportunity

of following lines of reading and study representing his individual interests. To the superior pupil the library furnishes the additional materials needed to supplement the regular activities of the classroom. The textbook as the sole or major source of content has not in the past stimulated him to make full and profitable use of his powers.

The character and organization of the library.—Space will not permit of any detailed discussion of the nature and organization of the library in the small junior or senior high school. In brief, it may be said that the content of such libraries should be carefully chosen with reference to the capacity and interests of adolescent boys and girls and the educational activities of the school. In building up the library of his school the principal should make use of the excellent lists of books suited to secondary-school pupils and the bulletins on high-school libraries.

In so far as possible the library should represent all phases of human achievement. Some of the things either essential or desirable are: reference aids, encyclopedias, dictionaries, atlases, supplementary textbooks; a representative collection of all phases of literature brought up to the present; history, biography, travel, geography, economics, sociology, folk ways and customs, and religion and ethics; representative books on all phases of science, interesting books on applications of science including psychology; representative books on the various forms of fine arts; and representative books on all the major types of vocations. In all these fields, at least, the library should extend to the present time. In literature, if one were to judge by many libraries in small high schools, nothing has been produced since Tennyson and Longfellow. The bulk of the reading done for enjoyment and recreation, not to mention reading for information, by high-school pupils and adults, however, is, and will continue to be, in contemporary literature. It would seem that one of the im-

portant phases of secondary-school work in literature might well be to make the pupil acquainted through library and classroom with a number of the better writers of to-day.

Every library in rural or village high schools should be well stocked with the latest bulletins and pamphlets on general and special economic, civic, general social, and occupational questions. Not only are these indispensable to effective work in vocational courses and as the basis of much of the work in vocational guidance, but they are very valuable in all the other phases of secondary-school work. These publications are usually issued by the various state and national departments of government, by state universities, agricultural colleges, etc. Usually they can be procured at little or no expense to the school.

Another essential feature of a library meeting adequately the demands of a modern secondary school is the periodical section. All high-school libraries should have available for pupils a representative list of current newspapers, magazines, and journals. In no other way can the school develop desirable habits of reading for information and recreation and promote an intellectual interest in contemporary human affairs. Studies indicate that small high schools have given but little attention to this feature of education. Of the 403 small high schools of New York reporting on this item in 1921-22 practically 24 per cent had no current magazines in their library. A daily newspaper was taken in only 8 per cent of the schools. Of fifty-four small four-year high schools representing eighteen states, visited by the writer in 1923, twenty-six, or approximately 50 per cent, had no current magazines or newspapers in their libraries.

Where possible the library in the rural or village high school should be in charge of a librarian. In the smaller schools this is often impracticable and even impossible. Under such conditions an effective plan is to have the library in the study room where it may be supervised by

the instructor in charge. A better arrangement usually is to have the library in an open alcove extending from the study room. It should be supplied with work tables and a card catalog of books, etc., arranged on the Dewey system. In some schools pupil assistants from the upper classes take charge of the library for certain periods of the day under the general guidance of a member of the faculty. Where this plan is used the assistants should have had some preliminary training in the organization and care of a library. A separate library room where no librarian is directly in charge is ordinarily unsatisfactory. Whatever plan is followed, the library should be accessible for pupils throughout the school day, and teachers should encourage its use.

The utilization of community resources.—In the past, the secondary school, particularly the small school, has made but very little use of the educational materials to be found in the community. This has probably been due in part to the disciplinary, almost monastical theory of education removed from the turmoil of life. At any rate, the educational activities of the small high school have only in a minor way, if at all, linked up with either the school's physical or social environment. In recent years a tendency toward the utilization of community sources has had a beginning. Types of vocational training, particularly agriculture and home-making, have found a place in the larger rural and village high schools. In agriculture especially, the instructional materials have in a large measure been either those afforded by the community or those closely related to local resources. Field study of materials and processes in their normal setting has been a prominent feature of this work in the best vocational departments. What has been done in the vocational courses in relating the work of the school to the activities of the community should be some indication as to what might well be done, to a lesser degree perhaps, in many other phases

of secondary-school work. It is entirely in harmony with the idea of education based upon the activities of society as well as the idea of school activities related to the experience background of the pupil.

The facts and principles taught in the classroom become vital, meaningful to the learner in the degree that they are related to his experience, as they have a bearing upon the physical and social worlds as he knows them. In the realm of the physical and biological sciences, and accessible to every school, every small community is rich in materials of high potential educational values. For the study of economics, civics, general social, and occupational activities, many of the most significant and interesting problems may be approached, and in a large measure developed, through the utilization of local resources. Not restricting its educational materials to those available in the community, but at all times utilizing them and relating its activities to them, the small secondary school should become a much more effective educational institution than it has been in the past.

Vocational guidance and vocational activities of community.—Vocational guidance as a function of the school also requires a close relationship between the school and the vocational activities of the community. Pupils must be given, among other things, an opportunity to observe such activities, where possible to participate in some of them, and to become acquainted with the conditions under which production is carried on, the demands upon the worker, and the opportunities in the various occupations represented in the community. All the objectives of secondary education indicate the necessity of the school's extending its range of educational activities to include the resources of the community. While field trips in the small high school have up to the present time been limited largely to vocational subjects, it seems safe to predict that in the future practically all phases of secondary education will be

promoted in part by the utilization of local materials through directed field study.

Problems

1. Make an analysis of a high-school textbook in any subject, used in a particular high school, from the standpoint of its adaptability to the experience background of the pupils and community sources in that subject.
2. Study in considerable detail the library facilities of a small high school and determine to what extent they are adequate for the needs of the school.
3. Evaluate as carefully as possible the materials in a course of study, or a portion of the course, in a high-school subject, using the suggested principles for the selection of subject matter. Place in one group those that need emphasis and in a second group those that appear to be of little or no direct values.
4. In teaching some subject in high school make a record for two weeks or a month of the connections that could be made between the work of the classroom and current events or items of interest.
5. Follow the voluntary reading of a class of high-school pupils for a month: (1) to determine the extent to which it might be capitalized upon in school work; and (2) for the indications as to the ways in which it might be desirable to guide the pupils in forming more desirable reading habits.

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PART III

THE GENERAL ORGANIZATION OF SECONDARY EDUCATION AND ITS ADAPTATION TO THE SMALL COMMUNITY

CHAPTER VII

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

The origin of the junior high school.—The junior high school has come into the public-school system to meet an educational need that cannot be defined in a single statement. Although its actual development, as far as it has gone, has been a matter of less than two decades, its roots extend back much further. It represents one phase of a fundamental reorganization of the schools of the United States in their adjustment of education to the needs of the child and the demands of a democracy.

Under the plan of a seven- or eight-year elementary school and a four-year high school certain weaknesses developed in each and in their relation one with the other. In their aims, subject matter, methods, and organization they were quite distinct. Often almost entire lack of articulation existed between the two schools. Many educators became convinced also that there was unnecessary waste of time for a large percentage of pupils in eight years devoted to instruction in the fundamental subjects and that more time was needed for secondary education than was afforded by the four-year high school. As the amount of education considered desirable for all children increased, attention was naturally forced also to the fact of the heavy elimination particularly in the period between the completion of the sixth grade and the second year of high school within which approximately 70 per cent of the pupils were lost to the schools.

It is not necessary in the present discussion to trace historically the threads of reorganization as they gradually

developed to culminate in the junior high school. The history of this development is already available from several sources for those who are interested. Suffice it to say that the need of reorganization was first voiced in a definite manner by the late President Charles W. Eliot of Harvard in 1888. His main theme was economy of time and better instruction. His discussion stirred others to action, and from that time on individuals and various educational organizations, through committees, have been engaged in studying the problems of elementary and secondary education from many angles. The junior high school, with its first representative dating from about 1910, is the outgrowth of this study.

Important weaknesses of the seven- and eight-four organization.—Certain of the more important weaknesses of the seven- and eight-four organization of elementary and secondary education will be considered at this time with special reference to small-school systems. Some of these weaknesses apply equally to larger schools and the validity of some of them is less for some schools than for others. Some are fundamental while others are due rather to lack of adjustment to modern demands upon education.

1. *Lack of conformity with the facts of adolescence.* Studies of the development of physical and mental traits in boys and girls have shown pretty conclusively: first, that the development extends over a long period of time; second, that the beginning of adolescence occurs in some individuals as early as the ninth year and is not complete in some cases until around twenty years of age; and, third, that there is great variability among different individuals as to the age at which pubescence first manifests itself and the rate at which the physiological characteristics of adolescence develop. Studies of mental traits have also shown quite conclusively that mental traits develop gradually through childhood and adolescence with no sudden fluctuations and at widely variant rates for different individuals.

These facts on the development of physical and mental traits in boys and girls point to the most fundamental weakness of the eight-four plan of organization. In the first place, the change from the elementary school to the high school under the traditional plan comes normally when the pupil is fourteen years of age or, generally speaking, at least two or three years after the begininng of adolescence in the majority of children. Thus it may be said to run counter to physiological growth. From the standpoint of mental growth, lack of harmony between the school and the child, particularly in the small schools, has been as great. Sudden change has been emphasized rather than gradualness of change, through the widest possible break in the nature of subject matter, school organization, and in methods of teaching and study.

2. *Eight years is a longer time than is necessary to acquire the fundamentals or tools of learning.* With the enrichment of the elementary-school curriculum and the inclusion of new subject matter of content values in the larger elementary schools, this argument has lost considerable weight so far as such schools are concerned. Recent studies have shown, however, that even in urban elementary schools the major portion of the time is still given to English language, reading, spelling, writing, and arithmetic. In the small schools the elementary curriculum is more restricted to these subjects. Comparatively little attention is given to materials of genuine social significance. Because of lack of time and dearth of teachers equipped to give instruction in the new content subjects, they have gained relatively little place in the work of small schools. Drill upon academic and abstract phases of tool or form subjects beyond the maturity, and alien to the interests and needs, of seventh- and eighth-grade pupils has persisted.

3. *Continues too long the grade plan of promotion and the attainment of a single standard.* School surveys have

shown repeatedly a large percentage of retarded pupils in the seventh and eighth grades, sometimes running as high as 60 per cent. This condition could not exist if schools were adapted to childhood rather than childhood stretched or cramped to fit artificial standards of the school. One cause of retardation has undoubtedly been the rigid plan of promotion particularly in the upper grades. It has emphasized mass treatment and the idea that children are identical in interests and capacities for mental growth. This has been especially serious since growth has been interpreted along narrow lines. In many rural and small village schools the gravity of the situation has been augmented through the custom of formal examinations in the seventh and eighth grades and the retention in those grades for one or more years, provided their courage held or compulsory school laws insisted, of pupils failing to reach the standards set in one or two subjects. The result has been that pupils chronologically, physiologically, and socially mature have been kept with younger, immature pupils to the detriment of both. It has also emphasized the break between elementary and secondary education.

4. *Does not offer early enough opportunity for differentiation.* This weakness in some respects overlaps the preceding one. In small schools the eight-four plan gives practically no opportunity for variant courses until the pupil is thirteen or fourteen years of age. It affords pupils in the seventh and eighth grades little or no subject matter of rich, vital content values. It gives little or no chance for discovery or for prevocational types of school activities, and thus makes impossible any effective educational or vocational guidance at the time when it would for a large majority be most valuable. It also gives early adolescent pupils practically no opportunity to come in touch with teachers of both sexes with whatever values might accrue from such contacts.

Other weaknesses of the traditional organization.—Other weaknesses pertaining particularly to rural schools are:

1. Where the one-room school is the predominant type of elementary school, eight years of instruction is more than one teacher can do efficiently even under the best forms of organization yet devised. This is particularly true in the light of the limited training and experience of the rural teacher at present, and of what may reasonably be expected in these respects for several years to come.

2. It does not give the rural pupils any appreciable opportunity to receive a taste of science, manual or domestic arts, fine arts, or significant phases of social science.

3. It does not afford seventh- and eighth-grade pupils any adequate social or recreational training appropriate to their peculiar needs. This is made impossible usually because of the demands of the smaller children upon the teacher's time and the small number of upper-grade pupils in any particular school.

4. In most states it does not bring the rural pupil into any intimate touch with the high school before the close of the period of compulsory school attendance. It does not stimulate the pupil's interest in secondary education. For the pupils of many rural communities, it places the high school at too remote a distance for it to exert any pulling power.

5. In a large proportion of rural communities it presents an abrupt break in the education of the child at a time when interest in school tends to wane.

Weaknesses of the four-year high school.—In the high school under the old organization, several very serious weaknesses have either developed or been retained from the days when the high school was regarded as a school for the classes and the elementary school as a school for the masses. In small communities the gap between the two schools has become wide, in some instances almost an

unbridgeable abyss. Under the influence of the new conception of secondary education, it has occasionally been possible to close the gap partially. In general, however, attempts to break up or modify the traditional, solidified, initial steps to a high-school education have resulted in failure.

In the main, the small high school has continued to devote itself in practice to the training of pupils for colleges and universities, notwithstanding the fact that but a small percentage of those who enter high school ever enter college. It has catered primarily to the few with intellectual abilities of the type and quality fitted for the professions and has permitted the more capable of the other pupils to satisfy their mental hunger as best they may by the same materials. Those who have not found their needs met in this manner, or who have been incapable of assimilating the material offered sufficiently well, have either been allowed to drop out, or have been ejected from the favored company. The small high school in general has selected by elimination and to only a very small degree by differentiation.

The organization of curriculums, if considered relative to the elementary school, has followed the saltatory theory of mental development with a vengeance. The most formal, most traditional subjects—Latin, ancient history, algebra, and geometry—have occupied the center of the stage during the first two years. In addition, the English literature studied has often been largely that representing an age foreign to the pupil and has been taught from a technical, critical point of view. Pupils who have remained for the last two years, who have stood a chance of receiving further education, have too frequently been practically the only ones granted the privilege of pursuing subjects at all modern or related in any direct way to life under modern conditions. In other words, the small high school of the four-year type has commonly required of the many

what is of use in a propædeutic sense to the few and has offered the few in the latter years what might have had significant values for the many.

The small four-year high school has given almost no opportunity for exploration or self-discovery. Practically the only guidance function it has served has either been negative through elimination, or in the direction of the professions in which positive manner it has undoubtedly influenced many toward the professions who would have found greater happiness in life and have performed a greater service in agricultural, industrial, or commercial pursuits. It has throughout emphasized a break in the educative process. While some encouraging tendencies toward the modernization of secondary education in the small high schools are sporadically active, the picture drawn would seem to be, in the main, true to conditions as they are to-day.

The junior high school represents a fundamental reorganization.—The junior high school in theory, not always in practice, represents a fundamental movement in the reorganization of the American school system to meet more effectively the educational needs of a democracy. It is designed to give to boys and girls between the ages of twelve and fifteen or thereabouts a type of education adapted to their abilities, interests, and needs. By beginning secondary-school training two years earlier, it makes the period of secondary education agree more closely with the period of adolescence. It should, if developed wisely, give continuity to the educative process from the early grades to the last year of the secondary-school period through gradual modification of the educational materials, methods, organization, and internal control to meet the needs of the child being educated and the demands made upon the individual by society.

What the junior high school is.—The junior high school has been defined in various terms. The North Central

Association has defined it as follows: "A junior high school is a school in which the seventh, eighth, and ninth grades are segregated in a building, or portion of a building, by themselves, possess an organization and administration of their own that is distinct from the grades above and the grades below, and are taught by a separate corps of teachers."[1] To this definition it attaches certain "essential" characteristics of such a school, in substance as follows: a program of studies characterized by scope and richness of content beyond that of the traditional elementary school, some opportunity for choice of studies under guidance, departmental teaching, promotion by subject, provision for exploration, recognition of individual differences in ability, and supervised study.

Davis[2] in answering the question, What is a junior high school? lists seventeen factors covering practically the points included in both the definition and the essential characteristics as offered by the Association but stated more in detail. He includes among these factors: a separate organization of grades seven to nine inclusive or at least two of these grades, a separate building, and a separate staff of teachers and supervisory officers. This would seem to be a somewhat arbitrary set of standards. Both the definitions of the Association and of Davis, and particularly the latter, appear to be colored by a viewpoint limited to school conditions and possibilities in large urban centers. They would bar by administrative requirements at least 70 per cent of the school communities of the country from the privilege of sending their children to a junior high school. It is undoubtedly desirable to set up as rapidly as possible criteria by which a junior high school should be determined, but it would seem that,

[1] *Proceedings* of the Twenty-Fifth Annual Meeting of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools (1920).

[2] C. O. Davis, *Junior High School Education* (World Book, 1924), pp. 13-14.

for the present at least, these criteria should be limited largely to definitions of functions. Later, when it is more definitely known within what limits only such an institution can perform those functions properly, minimal administrative requirements may be determined.

At the present stage in the development of the junior high school, to set up a definite list of requirements as to organization, particularly when these requirements are of such a nature that they can be met by only a relatively small percentage of the school communities of the country, seems not only to be unwise, but to be placing in the path of a desirable reorganization of secondary education unnecessary and harmful obstacles. The hope for secondary education of the junior high school is the effectiveness with which it functions in giving to early adolescents the best educational experience possible. To be most effective in the various types of communities will undoubtedly require flexibility in the organization, administration, and curriculums to be used under varying conditions. Minimal standards as to function should, and probably can even at this early stage, be tentatively set up, but details as to administrative organization, so dear to the hearts of many administrative mechanics, should as yet be left in a fluid state.

It seems possible to define the junior high school with respect to the function to be served, as indicated by a number of principles rather generally accepted by authorities. As a guide in the discussion in this and the following chapter, it will be defined, in accordance with those principles, as follows: *The junior high school is the first secondary-school unit in that plan of school organization the guiding purpose of which is to unify the school system and clarify its functions through gradual differentiation after the elementary-school period* (usually after the sixth grade) *in organization, subject matter, methods, and internal control in harmony with the nature and needs of the*

child to be educated and the demands of modern society. This definition permits of flexibility to meet varying conditions but points out definitely the fundamental principle that the junior high school should introduce secondary education gradually and adapt it to the needs of the pupil and the needs of modern society in a democracy, in this way giving continuity to the educative process.

The functions of the junior high school.—What should a school as defined do? In what directions should it function? Koos [3] gives five educational functions of the junior high school as:

1. Realizing a democratic school system through (*a*) retention of pupils, (*b*) economy of time, (*c*) recognition of individual differences, (*d*) exploration for guidance, (*e*) vocational education.
2. Recognizing the nature of the child.
3. Providing the conditions for better teaching.
4. Securing superior scholarship.
5. Improving the disciplinary situation and socializing opportunities.

Briggs [4] suggests five things which should represent the minimum that a junior high school should strive to accomplish:

1. Continue, in so far as it may seem wise and possible, and in a gradually diminishing degree, common, integrating education.
2. Ascertain and reasonably satisfy pupils' important immediate and assured future needs.
3. Explore by means of material in itself worth while the interests, aptitudes, and capacities of pupils.
4. Reveal to them, by material otherwise justifiable, the possibilities in the major fields of learning.

[3] L. V. Koos, "Peculiar Functions of the Junior High School," *School Review*, Vol. 28 (November, 1920), pp. 673-681, and *The Junior High School* (Harcourt, Brace, and Howe, 1920), Ch. ii.

[4] T. H. Briggs, *The Junior High School* (Houghton Mifflin, 1920), pp. 162-178.

5. Start each pupil on the career which, as a result of the exploratory courses, he, his parents, and the school are convinced is most likely to be of profit to him and to the State.

The quotations from these students of the junior high school give in summarized form what is rather generally accepted as the work of the first unit in secondary education: the first in terms of its functions; the second, largely through an analysis of curriculum elements with reference to the ends to be served.

From the viewpoint of the definition offered, and in general agreeing with the statements quoted above, an analysis of the purposes of the junior high school and the means of achieving them is made at this time:

1. *To bring about close articulation between elementary and secondary education:* first, by retaining in gradually decreasing amounts certain elements of elementary education and introducing gradually elements of secondary education modified to suit the abilities and maturity of early adolescent children; second, by beginning secondary education at a time more nearly coinciding with the advent of adolescence; third, by gradual introduction of new subject matter of rich and varied content and of high individual and social significance; fourth, by maintaining a close relation between subject matter and the life of the pupil through much use of community resources; fifth, by gradual introduction of departmental teaching; sixth, by use of home-room organization; and seventh, by directed learning or supervised study and emphasis upon the class period as a work period under supervision.

2. *To give recognition to individual differences:* through discovery of and attention to differences in capacities, interests, aptitudes, and life purposes as these appear; through gradual introduction of differentiation in studies and subject-matter content for different groups of pupils; through opportunity for each pupil to advance at his

optimal rate; through organization of courses of study with emphasis upon immediate or proved values, so far as these can be determined, and upon life activities as represented by the community; through exploratory, testing, and prevocational work; through as wide an offering of extraclass activities as size of school makes practicable. Finally, all this should be made possible through at least a three-year cycle of work unhampered by any entrance demands of higher institutions of learning.

3. *Retention of pupils:* through promotion by subject, introduction of prevocational courses, introduction of suitable phases of natural and social sciences, bringing pupils gradually in touch with secondary education at an earlier age, and pupil guidance.

4. *Improved teaching and scholarship:* through subject matter adapted to the pupil, and with gradually increasing opportunity for differentiation, semidepartmental instruction, instructors specializing, partially at least, in the direction of their interests, laboratory and library equipment, etc., and methods adapted to teaching the early adolescent.

5. *Educational and vocational guidance:* through exploratory and prevocational courses, broad educational contacts, study of occupations, home-room (advisory system), close relation of activities of the school to activities of the community, and extraclass activities.

6. *School socialization:* through homogeneous grouping of pupils, suitable extraclass activities, etc., and a form of school government suited to early adolescent pupils.

The organization of the junior high school.—In the organization of the junior high school to perform the functions mentioned above, four items are quite generally regarded as of fundamental importance. These are an appropriate curriculum organization and content, guidance, extraclass activities, and a suitable building and equipment.

1. *The curriculum.*—The curriculum should be such as to provide for a gradual transition from elementary education to secondary education. It should conform to the gradual physiological and psychological development of the pupil as he passes from childhood through the early stages of adolescence. It should be extensive in the variety of educational elements represented. To promote the discovery of the pupils' capacities, interests, and aptitudes, and to provide for the recognition of individual differences, it must afford opportunities for exploration through a variety of try-out and prevocational courses. It should emphasize instructional materials of rich and proven values.

The constants-variables type of curriculum is quite generally accepted by authorities as the one best adapted to junior-high-school demands. It is constructed on the principles that common, integrating materials should occupy a prominent place in the pupil's education early in his secondary-school course, and that opportunities for exploration and the discovery of capacities, aptitudes, and interests should precede the necessity for choice of a distinct curriculum. It provides for differentiation through studies, through a group of variables, rather than through curriculums, the method of differentiation in the senior high school.

Gradual transition from elementary to secondary education is not alone provided for in the curriculum through a gradually decreasing amount of common or integrating educational materials. It is also facilitated in the majority of schools by the introduction of subjects extensive in character, less specialized than those of the senior high school, and hence better adapted to the stage of learning represented by pupils of junior-high-school age. General mathematics, general science, and general social science are examples. Through general mathematics containing elements of arithmetic, algebra, geometry, etc., the pupil is

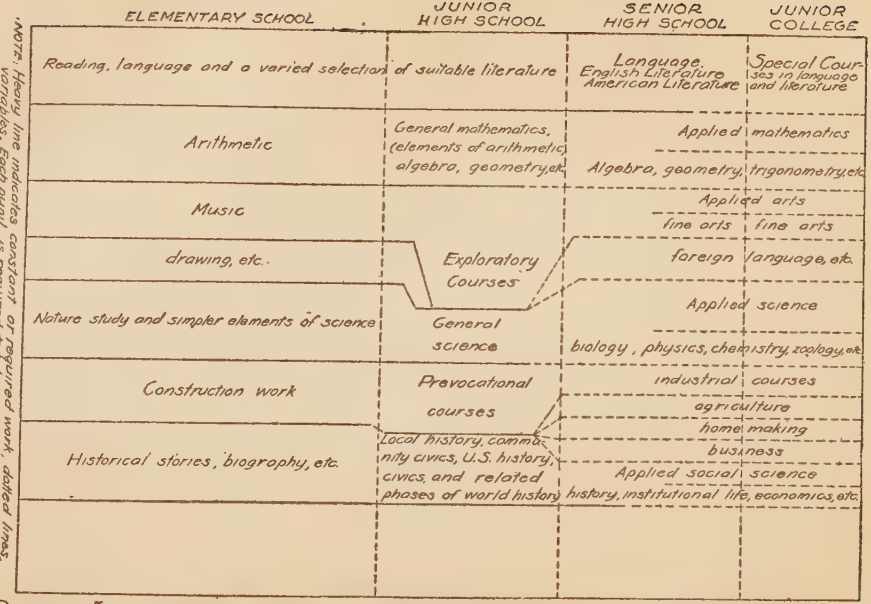
ELEMENTARY SCHOOL
JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL
SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL
JUNIOR COLLEGE
Reading, language and a varied selection of suitable literature
Language, English Literature American Literature
Special Courses in language and literature
Arithmetic
General mathematics, elements of arithmetic, algebra, geometry, etc.
Applied mathematics
Algebra, geometry, trigonometry, etc.
Music
Applied arts
fine arts
fine arts
drawing, etc.
Exploratory Courses
foreign language, etc.
Nature study and simpler elements of science
General science
Applied science
biology, physics, chemistry, zoology, etc.
Construction work
Prevocational courses
industrial courses
agriculture
home making
business
Historical stories, biography, etc.
Local history, community civics, U.S. history, civics, and related phases of world history
Applied social science
history, institutional life, economics, etc.
NOTE. Heavy line indicates constant or required work, dotted lines, variables. Each pupil is required to take some work in exploratory or prevocational courses

DIAGRAM 5.—SUBJECT-MATTER SEQUENCE AND DIFFERENTIATION IN ELEMENTARY AND SECONDARY EDUCATION.

gradually led from the arithmetic of the elementary school to the study of algebra and geometry. Through general science composed of a variety of phases of science he is led from nature study and elementary science in the elementary school to the study of biology, botany, physics, chemistry, etc., in the senior high school. Through community civics, historical biography, and a variety of interesting phases of history he is introduced to the study of government, economics, and special subjects in history. Diagram 5, p. 152, may make more concrete the articulation of elementary and secondary education thus effected. Only enough subjects are presented to illustrate the operation of the principle.

As already indicated the junior-high-school curriculum includes elements of elementary education, secondary education, and elements pertaining directly to community activities. Its composition is excellently given in the following quotation: "There are three currents which find their confluence in the junior high school. One comes from the elementary school, a second from the senior high school, and a third from vocations and society. Accordingly, the program of studies is made up, in part, of a continuation of the elementary school's single curriculum but a review, *i.e.*, a new view, of these courses in their articulated relation to secondary courses; in part, a preview of secondary courses but a rearrangement of former high school courses in 'their simpler aspects'; in part, a prevocational content from industry, commerce, and the home which comprises the fine and practical arts, and some electives; and finally, in part, also, a liberal amount of social science materials and social and civic activities of junior citizenship that early adolescents may find their self-conscious social adjustment."[5]

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[5] James M. Glass, "The Plan and Purpose of the Junior High School," *The High School Teacher*, Vol. I (January, 1925), p. 4.

2. *Pupil guidance.*—Guidance is an essential feature of the junior high school. The three phases of guidance most commonly recognized are educational, vocational, and social; or guidance in relation to the curriculum, guidance in relation to vocational choice, and guidance in relation to adjustment to school and community life. One of the most important responsibilities of the junior high school is that of helping the pupil in making these three adjustments. This requires that the whole organization of the school be such as to facilitate the discovery of the individual pupil's needs and his adjustment to his school and social environment.

Several means are used to further pupil guidance in these respects. The curriculum through prevocational and exploratory courses affords opportunities for discovering and testing abilities, aptitudes, and interests. The home room with an instructor as an adviser of a small group of pupils is a common feature of junior-high-school organization designed particularly to promote educational and social guidance. Directed or supervised study is fundamental to educational guidance. As one phase of vocational guidance a course in vocational civics or the study of occupations has been introduced in many schools. Cooperative school government and a program of extraclass activities or school clubs with faculty advisers are commonly employed as means of social guidance especially, though they have great values in both educational and vocational guidance. In many of the larger schools vocational guidance is under the special direction of a vocational counsellor.

3. *Extraclass activities.*—The junior high school recognizes the importance of extraclass activities in education and gives them a definite place in its program. Under the advice and guidance of members of the faculty pupils organize clubs and plan and carry through programs largely under their own initiative and management.

Through its club life it effects much of its training with reference to the development of recreational interests, civic habits and ideals, health habits and standards, and habits and ideals of sympathetic coöperation and service. Through their clubs many pupils should discover their permanent interests and aptitudes. Finally, these activities are the means of satisfying the natural tendencies of the pupils toward group activities under conditions which afford a large measure of freedom and spontaneity.

4. *Building and equipment.*—To meet the demands of the junior high school with its wide range of activities requires a building with varied facilities. Briefly stated, it should at least be equipped with a library conveniently located, and well equipped, a laboratory for science, a practical arts room for girls, a shop for boys, a gymnasium, and an auditorium. In most communities it should have a room for commercial subjects, and where possible a room for the fine arts.

Problems

1. Trace the important steps in the historical development of the junior high school.
2. Make an analysis of the functions of the junior high school as given by several authoritative writers, noting points of agreement and difference.
3. What characteristics should its program of studies possess if the junior high school is to promote a close articulation between elementary and secondary education?
4. Why are pupil guidance and extraclass activities given such prominent places in the work of the junior high school?
5. Make a study of the means of guidance recommended for or used in junior high schools.
6. In what respects is the secondary school with the junior high school as the first unit a better organization from the standpoint of adolescence than the four-year high school?

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CHAPTER VIII

THE JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL IN RURAL AND VILLAGE COMMUNITIES

The growth of the junior high school in small communities.—As in the case of other progressive movements in education, the junior high school, carrying with it the organization of a six-year elementary school and six years of secondary education, developed first in the larger urban centers. Its growth in village and rural communities started later and has been slower. This has been due in part to better, more aggressive professional leadership in urban school systems; in part to the greater freedom of city schools from rules and regulations of state departments and other agencies of control with regard to organization, curriculums, and courses of study; and in part to the greater economic resources of city schools. The relatively greater ease with which major readjustments in the way of buildings, equipment, teaching force, etc., can ordinarily be made in large school systems, has also undoubtedly been a factor in the development of the junior high school in the city as contrasted with village and rural communities.

In the last few years, however, the junior-high-school movement has spread into many rural and village communities. In many instances, perhaps in a large proportion, the reorganization effected has been largely restricted to the more superficial phases as departmentalized teaching, partial promotion by subject, and beginning earlier certain secondary-school subjects. Much less has been accom-

plished in the way of guidance, exploratory work, prevocational courses, and recognition in positive ways of individual differences, those primary functions of the junior high school. Generally speaking, very minor changes, if any, have been effected in curriculum organization, the selection and organization of subject matter, methods of instruction and study, and the development of programs of appropriate extraclass activities. Some progress is being made gradually in these more fundamental aspects of reorganization, as is evidenced by programs of studies and courses of study in particular village and rural junior high schools (see Appendix I and II).

The importance of the junior-high-school plan in small communities.—If the purpose of the junior high school is to give to pupils in the early adolescent years educational opportunities suited to their stage of maturity and needs and to the needs of modern society; if it is to give recognition to individual differences and to stress the problems of self-discovery and guidance; if it is to make more continuous, more democratic, education from the elementary school into and through the secondary school, as is generally accepted by authorities on the junior high school, it should have even more to offer children of rural and village communities than it does to the children of urban centers. In these smaller communities the nature of the upper-grade work has been more academic and traditional, more limited in scope and richness, than in urban schools. The lack of articulation between the elementary school and the high school has been more serious. Not only has the gap between the elementary school and the high school existed because of the abrupt change in subject matter and method, but often it has been widened by formal eighth-grade examinations frequently based upon very arbitrary standards. In many instances the gap has been further widened by the mere fact of physical distance between the child and the high school.

Growing recognition of the junior high school.—That the possibilities of the junior high school in small communities are being recognized is indicated by the following statements:

"Many small communities that are now striving to maintain elementary schools of eight grades and four-year high schools might better maintain an elementary school for grades one to six and a junior high school for grades seven to nine, sending their tenth, eleventh, and twelfth grades to a nearby high school."[1]

"The junior high school movement ought to be of even greater value to rural districts than it is to cities. The next development in organization should reach out into the rural districts and provide junior high school facilities in those sections where it is not yet advisable to establish the four-year high school."[2]

"Where consolidated elementary schools have been established there should be an extension of the Intermediate or Junior High School idea by addition of the ninth grade and probably tenth grade instruction to many of those consolidated schools."[3]

Of course, if the junior high school is to be an educational institution meeting some of the more or less arbitrary standards proposed, as separate building, separate teaching and supervisory staff, and an enrollment of 250 to 300 pupils, it could not be developed in centers under eight to ten thousand population. The report of the Bureau of Education on Secondary Education in 1921 and 1922 shows that of 199 centers between 2,500 and 25,000 population having junior high schools, only 37 per cent had separate buildings for housing them.[4] It would be as reasonable to

[1] *Public Education in Indiana* (1922), p. 216.

[2] *Educational Progress in Wisconsin* (1921), p. 25.

[3] "Report of the Special Legislative Committee on Education in California" (1920), Ch. iv, pp. 71-72.

[4] W. S. Deffenbaugh, "Secondary Education in 1921 and 1922," Bureau of Education, Bulletin No. 12 (1923), p. 28.

assume that a high school could not be a high school unless it were in a separate building from the first eight grades or if it had fewer than 200 high-school pupils, and thus eliminate at one fell stroke 80 per cent of the high schools of the country. Such standards for junior high schools should not be taken too seriously by those who know the conditions under which secondary education must be developed in the majority of small communities and who are deeply interested in the development of a genuinely democratic system of secondary schools for all the children of all the people.

While within certain limits the larger the pupil enrollment the better the junior high school, given adequate facilities, can perform its function, the increased educational opportunities it has to offer must be made available so far as possible to the children of all communities. It can take the form found in the large urban centers where feasible, and where that form is not practicable, it should be modified to meet most effectively the conditions of the community which it serves. Any other goal than this would fall short of our ideals of education in a democracy.

Weaknesses of the seven- and eight-four plan in small communities.—Some of the more serious weaknesses of the eight- or seven-four organization of the school system in small communities, both rural and village, are: First, the child of twelve to fourteen and often older is given little or no opportunity to dip into science, social studies, the fine or practical arts, or exploratory or prevocational types of work; second, he has little or no laboratory, library, or shop facilities; third, he has little opportunity to satisfy his peculiar sociability and recreational needs; fourth, he is limited in the main to formal, abstract academic subject matter related in no direct or intimate sense with either his individual needs or the needs of society; fifth, in communities not maintaining a high school he is iso-

lated from contact with high school at a time when such contact would be a great stimulus toward further training than is afforded by the seven- or eight-year elementary school.

In rural communities he is often under the instruction of a teacher who has neither the time nor training to satisfy his educational needs even though means in the way of equipment and other teaching materials were at hand. At all events, he is thrown abruptly at the completion of the elementary school, if he still retains any interest in further schooling or his parents insist that he continue, into a different type of school with new methods, frequently new standards, and new subjects, in the sense of different, usually of a highly abstract character. He usually faces as his introduction to secondary education algebra, ancient history or a condensed form of general history, usually a formal brand of English, and often, if he wishes to be respected by his teachers, Latin. From study done in the presence, if not under the supervision, of a teacher, he passes at once to home study to be carried on often with no guidance as to proper methods of attack or ends to be reached.

Some of these weaknesses at least might be partially eliminated in the schools of small communities without changing from the old plan of organization. Occasionally they have been. All such changes, however, must come about in the face of practices that have become as firmly established as tradition. Other weaknesses are inherent in the seven- or eight-four plan and can only be removed by a new organization adapted to the child and existing conditions. The junior high school with its aims, methods, organization, and curriculums based upon the nature and needs of boys and girls in the early adolescent years and upon the demands of life to-day seems to offer the best means for a genuine functional reorganization of secondary education in small communities. It is as yet flexible,

modifiable, and, in the main, unhampered by deadening tradition.

Advantages of the junior-high-school organization.—Developed as it may well be, the junior high school should offer the following advantages over the traditional organization in small communities, and especially to the rural community in meeting its needs. It should give a closer articulation between elementary and secondary education and thus make easier the transition from the elementary school to the secondary school. This it should accomplish by the gradual introduction of materials of high content values, of individual and social significance, taught by methods and according to standards adapted to the capacities and interests of early adolescents. At this point it should be mentioned that the junior high school is not to be regarded merely as a transition school. It has its own peculiar educational mission to perform, transition from the elementary school to the senior high school being only one of its several important functions.

It should, as far as possible, offer opportunities for exploration and prevocational activities and, where the need is great, some vocational training for those who cannot go beyond the junior high school. It should emphasize guidance and have in operation a definite system of educational and vocational guidance. It should give recognition to individual differences. With the exception of vocational training, it must do these things if it is to be a real junior high school. It should make feasible better equipment in the way of library, laboratory, shop, and facilities for domestic art than has been possible in the elementary school. It should promote by subject, promotion being based in the first two years upon the integrating-fundamental group of subjects only. It should make possible better teaching both through better trained teachers for the seventh and eighth grades and through the opportunity it affords for semidepartmentalization, not to men-

tion more appropriate subject matter and other instructional equipment. It should afford opportunity for sociability and recreational activities through school assemblies, extraclass activities, and social functions appropriate to boys and girls of junior-high-school age.

In many of the smaller communities, both village and rural, the junior high school, beginning as it does with the seventh grade, should make possible greater accessibility of secondary education than has been practicable under the old plan. Many such communities can afford to maintain a three- or four-year junior high school that have been unable to offer any local high-school work heretofore. In such cases, it would be possible for pupils in grades seven to nine or seven to ten to receive their first secondary-school training within easy traveling distance from home. It would make the upper years of secondary education possible for a greater number of children than under old conditions, even where the senior high school is beyond the limits of daily travel from home, by reducing the number of years necessary for completing the senior-high-school work. For hundreds of small communities struggling to maintain a three- or four-year high school with a small enrollment, small teaching staff, and meager equipment, insufficient in every particular for maintaining standard work in the eleventh and twelfth years, it would make practicable a three- or four-year junior high school capable of doing a reasonably good quality of work.

For all small communities the junior high school should offer the opportunity of developing a three-year unit of secondary education without reference to and unhampered by college entrance requirements. This would make possible in the first three years emphasis upon phases of secondary-school work much neglected in the average small four-year high school. The work of the junior school could well be determined in the light of pupil and community needs and the present-day needs of society through the social

and natural sciences, constructive arts, and other subjects of high content values and of individual and social significance. It should make practicable the development in social science and science cycles of study suited to the maturity and interests of junior-high-school pupils. Such an organization of the educational activities of the first three years of secondary education would make possible a program suited to all pupils, with emphasis upon guidance through the exploration, discovery, and testing of pupil's interests, aptitudes, and abilities before the pupil needed to come to any decision either as to his choice of a vocation or of the particular curriculum to be pursued in the senior high school.

The organization of the junior high school in rural communities should make practicable a needed reorganization of junior club work. At present this work is largely directed and controlled by agencies separate from the school. Often, as recent investigations have shown, it is conducted with little reference to its educational values for the children concerned. The junior high school includes the children of the ages usually enlisted in boys' and girls' club work and might well be the institution in connection with which and through which such work is organized and directed. The work could then be organized and conducted with reference to the objectives of education in the junior high school and could become, as it should, an integral part of the community's educational program. It could then become a feature of the exploratory and prevocational activities of the school and a part of its system of pupil guidance.

Adaptation of organization to the community.—The particular form which the junior high school should take should not be determined by any arbitrary set of standards. Both its own organization and its administrative and supervisory relations with the other units of the school system should be determined by the conditions under which

it is to function. It should be organized so far as can be determined through a careful study of the community, to give the community which it is to serve the maximum it has to offer and in the most effective and economical manner.

The junior high school in the larger centralized schools.—In villages or in rural centralized districts large enough to support a twelve-year system of schools meeting desirable standards, the six-three-three, or the six-six organization with partial separation of the secondary period into junior and senior units, has all the advantages to offer that it has for the city system. Six years of secondary education can be organized on a five- or six-year elementary school with close articulation between the two. With the flexibility possible within the first three years these years can be developed to meet the peculiar needs of early adolescent pupils and the community. Exploratory and prevocational work can be introduced and, where practicable, one or two lines of vocational work for pupils who are overage or do not expect to enter the senior school. Ordinarily vocational work should not be regarded as a part of the junior-high-school program. Earlier offerings in community civics, art, and music can be made. Promotion by subject and at least semidepartmentalization of instruction can be effected. A plan of directed study can be developed. Educational and vocational guidance can be given pupils. Extraclass activities can be provided. All these things should aid in producing a more vital type of education for children of twelve to fifteen and older, than has been possible under the traditional form of organization, and would undoubtedly operate to retain boys and girls in school.

The six-six plan.—While a separate building and a separate teaching staff for the junior high school make easier the problems of reorganization, they are not essential to realizing, in large measure at any rate, the contribution

the junior high school has to make. By intelligent administration and organization, these things can be gained where all six years of work are given in one building. In some respects, it would seem that worth-while economies might be thus effected in smaller systems without in any appreciable way subtracting from the legitimate functions of either the junior or senior schools.

By using the same teachers for both schools the range of subjects necessarily taught by each teacher is reduced and greater specialization than is otherwise possible in either school separately is made practicable. While such an organization of the teaching program may be inferior in some respects to that of specialists for each school, it is vastly superior to the condition at present found in the majority of small high schools of the traditional type. It will operate also against lack of articulation between the junior and senior periods of secondary education, a real danger where the two units are entirely separate. It has the advantage of adding to the flexibility of the daily program in both schools. Under careful supervision and with courses of study well worked out for each year according to definite objectives, the average teacher should find it easier to adapt his instruction in one or two subjects to the varying needs of junior- and senior-high-school pupils than to do effective teaching in three or four different subjects in either school. In fact, some small systems have found the arrangement suggested highly satisfactory. Where conditions seem to make it desirable, a modified form of the organization suggested may be used. Where one or two teachers in the corps have had special training in junior-high-school work, or are specially successful with the younger pupils, they may be given responsibility for instruction in two subjects to the first- or second-year pupils, thus reducing the number of teachers with whom those pupils work.

The amount of home work required in the junior high

school, particularly in the first two years, should be less than that required in the senior school. When required it should be more closely directed. The feature of directed or supervised study is essential in the junior high school and should receive much attention in the organization of that unit. A sixty-minute recitation-study period seems to be best adapted to the needs of the junior high school, hence, where both schools are in the same building and wholly or partially taught by the same instructors, the entire school should if possible be placed on a sixty-minute schedule. Separate study halls are advisable because of desirable differentiation in the control of the two schools. Extraclass activities should be organized for the pupils of the junior-high-school distinct from those of the senior school. In the main, assemblies should be separate though there are undoubtedly advantages to be gained through occasional combined assemblies.

The home room.—In the elementary school the child has had one teacher to whom he could look for sympathetic counsel and guidance. One of the weaknesses of the average small high school has been its failure to provide entering pupils with such a counsellor. One of the functions of the junior high school is to supply this need. This has usually been accomplished through the home-room teacher. For each group of twenty-five or thirty junior-high-school pupils there should be a home room and a teacher especially responsible for that group. This may well be the teacher who meets the group for instruction the first period of the day. He should be, however, a person interested in children of the age of those assigned to him for guidance, sympathetic toward them, and intelligent in regard to their problems and needs.

Possible economies in the single-building system.—Where both schools are housed in the same building, economies in shop, laboratories, domestic art rooms, etc., are practicable. These special rooms may be equipped to

meet both the needs of junior- and senior-high-school classes at a minimum additional expense. In small high schools such special rooms are often in use, except where they are utilized as regular classrooms, but a part of the school day. Under the junior-senior plan they may be utilized more advantageously and still meet the needs of both schools. One library may be made to serve better the needs of both than could be done through separate libraries with the funds usually available for libraries in small systems. The library should be built up with the needs of both the junior and senior units in mind and with the idea of affording the maximum of real service to both. A system of directed study makes it necessary to have easily accessible to pupils study materials, important among which are books. For the junior high school particularly, there should be a system by which books may be placed temporarily in the junior study hall or in the different classrooms as needed.

Dangers of the six-six organization.—There are some dangers in the six-six organization which, being neglected or overlooked, may operate in the direction of reducing the maximum of service to be rendered. The first is that of placing the seventh and eighth grades as a unit in the high school under departmental instruction, but with no modification in the work offered. This can be regarded only as a makeshift and does not, in any sense, make a junior high school or help to any appreciable extent in articulating the elementary school and the high school. The second is the tendency to direct the activities of the junior high school according to the standards and viewpoint of the senior high school. The third is the tendency to employ the same methods of government and control; and the fourth is the tendency to make no differentiation in extraclass activities, assemblies, and the general social activities of the two schools. All of these dangers are serious. They can only be avoided by a thorough under-

standing, on the part of administrators and instructors, of the peculiar functions of the junior high school, the psychology of adolescence, and the development of the first three years as a unit with vital relationships with both the elementary school on the one side and the senior high school on the other.

The junior high school and accessibility and adequacy of educational opportunities.—There are two fundamental problems in the administration and organization of public secondary education in a democracy, both offering special difficulties in their satisfactory solution for small communities. One is that of making secondary education accessible to the children in those communities, and the other is that of offering a type of secondary education in any real sense comparable to that afforded children in larger centers of population. In many respects the solution of one of these problems seems to be in opposition to the demands of the other. To make secondary education easily accessible to all children has necessitated the development of many extremely small high schools. On the other hand, to offer a program of the variety and range desirable, if it is to be done economically, requires a school of considerable size. As yet neither problem has been solved in any satisfactory manner. In the past greater success has attended our efforts in solving the former problem than in solving the latter.

There are still many communities in the country where high schools are too far distant for children to attend while living at home. There are many more where the educational opportunities are meager and unsatisfactory. With respect both to the sum total of results attained and to the per pupil outlay of time and money, they are extremely expensive. If we are to have a genuinely democratic system of public secondary schools affording all children—whether they live in city, village, or in the open country—reasonably comparable educational opportunities,

much is yet to be done especially in village and rural communities.

A central senior high school and contributory junior high schools.—Secondary-school facilities at all adequate to modern demands and the varied needs of pupils of secondary-school age cannot be offered where the number of high-school pupils is fewer than seventy-five or one hundred without making the burden of such education greater than the resources of the community justify or can bear. With fifty or fewer pupils the best the school can do is to offer a program of very limited range. Its library, shop, and laboratory facilities, and equipment are often insufficient, especially for the eleventh and twelfth years, without sacrificing the needs of the younger pupils. The development of extraclass activities, opportunities for training in social activities, and those other important phases of secondary education are largely impossible. To offer the range and variety of work desirable, with at least two or three differentiated curriculums in the last three years, and with the other activities essential for an effective modern high school, makes desirable a school of at least 100 pupils, with building facilities, equipment, and instructional staff in accordance.

In many sections of the country three or four little high schools, parts of a village or centralized system, each attempting to give three or four years of work above the eighth grade, and all within a radius of three to eight miles, are to be found. All are struggling valiantly to give twenty to fifty boys and girls twelve to sixteen units of work of high-school grade. Many of them are working with equipment extremely limited, with practically no library, laboratory, shop, or gymnasium facilities. The program of studies in each school is limited to a single curriculum containing only the traditional subjects. The instructors are overworked; the percentage of failures and elimination is usually high; and the vitality of the school

and the interest of the pupils are often at low ebb. Even with its meager offerings, the system is top-heavy, the per pupil cost in high school extremely high, and the work, such as it is, maintained at the expense of the elementary school. Such is the greatness of the faith of the American people in the value of a secondary-school training. Some way must be found of giving small communities types of secondary education that will justify this faith and, at the same time, not augment in many of them the financial burdens already borne.

The development of good roads and especially the improvement in means of transportation have doubled in the last decade the distance in most sections of the country which it is practicable to carry pupils to school. This makes it possible to utilize the junior high school as one means of solving, in part at least, the two apparently antagonistic problems of accessibility and adequacy of educational opportunities for small communities. The smaller community can develop a three- or four-year junior high school including grades seven to nine or seven to ten with an enrollment of forty-five to seventy-five pupils. With a curriculum of the constants-variables type, made to suit the functions of the junior high school and taught by a staff of three or four instructors, it can build up a school that will serve the real needs of its children between the ages of twelve to fifteen or sixteen. The pupils of the tenth, eleventh, and twelfth years, or the last two, can be transported daily to and from the local school and the central school. This school with a junior division of fifty to 100 pupils and a senior division of seventy-five to 150 or more pupils can develop a senior high school sufficiently staffed and equipped to give economically and effectively types of work fairly comparable both in range and quality to those of the urban senior high school. The results should be better educational opportunities for all boys and girls in the entire territory concerned. Hart County,

Georgia, with its central senior high school and contributory junior high schools, is an illustration of this plan of organization.

This plan would make it practicable for some communities heretofore without any local secondary school to maintain a three- or four-year junior high school. In some sections of the country, however, it might be more feasible to transport all children above the sixth grade to the central school, and thus by increasing the number of pupils at the central school make practicable an even greater expansion of secondary-school opportunities. This plan of a central school with a number of affiliated elementary or elementary-junior schools and a senior high school would require a unit of control and support as large as the territory included in the senior-high-school district. Such a system is already in successful operation in many parts of the country and is being recommended to many others.

The junior high school in rural communities with one-room elementary schools.—For many rural communities where elementary education is given in the one- or two-room school, the junior high school has a valuable service to render. It is possible to develop in a village or rural center a junior high school to accommodate the children above the sixth year. These children can be transported daily to and from the local school. Such an organization will tend to result in better instruction for both the younger and older children. To the younger children in the one- or two-teacher school, it should make available increased time and attention by reducing the teacher's daily program of classes, as well as the range of preparation required of the instructor for meeting classes. It should give the older children a chance to get an education suited to their particular interests and needs and richer and more varied in character than would be possible especially in the one-room school. It would tend to remove the great gap that

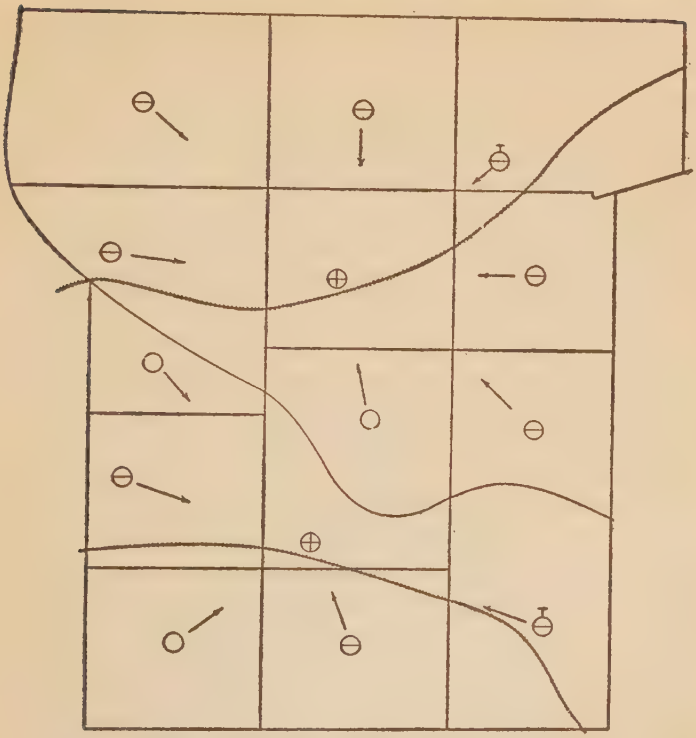
Centralized six-year elementary school.
Centralized six-year elementary school and three-year junior high school
Centralized six-year elementary school and four-year junior high school
Centralized six-year elementary school and six-year junior-senior high school

DIAGRAM 6.—A SUGGESTED ORGANIZATION OF JUNIOR AND JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL FOR A COUNTY OR OTHER INTERMEDIATE SCHOOL UNIT.

has existed between the rural school and the high school. It should give the overage rural boy or girl an opportunity to pursue some studies adapted to his interests and aptitudes among pupils more nearly his own age. It should

make it easier to provide teachers of better training and maturity for the pupils of the seventh and eighth grades than are ordinarily available for the one- or two-teacher schools. It would bring together boys and girls between the ages of twelve to fifteen or sixteen in sufficient numbers to make possible the organization of appropriate extra-class activities of cultural, recreational, and sociability types. Through participation in such activities they would have the opportunity of exercising under guidance their group tendencies while at the same time they were receiving desirable training in social, recreational, and moral-ethical phases of education. In most, if not all, instances, it would give a school center around which many of the activities of the community as a whole might profitably develop.

The aim of the small junior high school.—The aim of the junior high school in the rural or village community should be the promotion of individual and social efficiency. This aim should be interpreted primarily in the light of the needs of to-day as reflected in the significant activities of the early adolescent child, of the community, and of the country as a whole. It should give emphasis to the modern social environment rather than that of the past and to the common needs rather than the special. It should recognize that for the large majority of people the approach to culture, perhaps culture itself, is a broad, sympathetic understanding of the life activities of to-day and their relationships. This aim should also be interpreted with reference to the pupil's physical environment and its possibilities in educational materials. It should, in the education of each individual, direct the work toward all the subsidiary aims of health, economic, civic, sociability, intellectual, recreational, esthetic, and religious efficiency and in ways and according to standards appropriate to the junior-high-school age. Each pupil should be given individual attention and his maximum development according

to his native capacity, interests, and aptitudes should be a primary matter of concern. Successful achievement and not failure should be emphasized.

The junior high school and preparation for college.—Preparation for higher education as such should be of no direct concern in the work of the junior high school. The best it can do for its pupils is to give them the best educational opportunities it can, as determined by their capacities, interests, and aptitudes, and the significant activities of modern life. This should be the best preparation for later educational achievement. The junior high school will be the most effective educational institution when it develops its work in the light of the best available knowledge of boys and girls of early adolescent years and the desirable activities and characteristics of a citizen in a democratic society.

The curriculum of the small junior high school.—To meet these demands, the curriculum of the small junior high school must contain educational elements broad in scope and varied in character. It should be intimately related to all phases of life and the educational resources of the community. In relation to the needs of the community and utilizing its resources but supplementing and enriching them, it should promote the attainment of the objectives of the junior high school.

The curriculum should give special attention to training so far as desirable in the mastery of the tools of learning as reading, oral and written expression, spelling, language, essential arithmetical processes, and in the acquirements of those elements of integration deemed desirable for all persons in a democracy in so far as these are suited to the junior-high-school pupil. It should give attention to the development of a normal physical body through training in appropriate health knowledges, habits, attitudes, ideals, and practices. The development of abiding intellectual and esthetic interests and desires; of a sense of civic re-

sponsibility; of habits and ideals of service; of habits, attitudes, standards, and ideals of conduct; and of training in desirable forms of recreation should receive attention through the curriculum and the general activities of the school. The development of rational attitudes should be encouraged to a degree and in ways adapted to junior-high-school pupils. Finally, both curriculum and organization of the school should promote the function of pupil guidance.

Through his junior-high-school course each pupil should acquire some understanding of the simpler facts and principles of economics, especially as they concern the everyday activities of himself, home, and community. Opportunity for exploration and vocational training on a prevocational level in the major vocations of the community should be afforded. As an illustration some of the features of an exploratory course in agriculture for the seventh and eighth grades are given in Appendix I. Ordinarily vocational courses should not be stressed in the work of the junior high school; they belong to the senior high school. In communities, however, where significant numbers of pupils leave school to enter occupational activities at the completion of their junior-high-school course, the school should if possible meet this need so long as it exists. Such vocational courses should be organized to meet most effectively the immediate needs of the pupils concerned and should be given in the last year.

The suggestive curriculum offered on page 177 is designed to represent a minimum curriculum of the constants-variables type that a junior high school could offer and still meet in any adequate way, so far as curriculum elements are concerned, the requirements set up for a junior high school. The variables especially are only suggestive as their exact nature will depend in some measure upon the nature of the community served. For example, in many villages agriculture should undoubtedly give way to commercial

A Suggestive Curriculum for a Small Junior High School

	Constants	Variables
Seventh Year	English 5: Composition, oral and written, practical grammar, spelling, writing, literature Mathematics 5: Arithmetic and general mathematics Social Science 5: History (biography, customs, life, and peoples and phases of their history closely related to life and to history of United States) taught largely for enjoyment and appreciation Science 4: Geography, hygiene, sanitation, and elementary science, largely projects based upon community resources Health Education 2: Physical education and appropriate elements of science. Extraclass Activities 1 *or* 2	Shop 2 *or* 3 Music 1 *or* 2 Freehand Drawing 1 *or* 2 Home Economics 2 *or* 3
Eighth Year	English 5: Composition, practical grammar, literature, writing, spelling Mathematics 4 *or* 5: General mathematics Social Science 4: Community civics and Vocational civics *or* Study of occupations Science 4: Elementary science Health Education 2 Extraclass Activities 1 *or* 2	Shop 2 *or* 3 Music 1 *or* 2 Drawing 1 *or* 2 Prevocational Agriculture and Occupational Visitation 2 *or* 3 Home Economics 2 *or* 3 Foreign Language 2 *or* 3
Ninth Year	English 4 *or* 5: Composition and literature Social Science 4 *or* 5: United States history and civics Health Education 2 Extraclass Activities 1 *or* 2 General Science 3 *to* 5	Algebra *or* General Mathematics 4 *or* 5 Foreign Language 5 Mechanical Drawing 2 *or* 3 Commercial Subject 2 *to* 4 Art 2 *to* 4 Agriculture 4 *to* 8[1] Home-making 4 *to* 8

[1] Ordinarily it would seem that vocational courses should be restricted to the senior high school. Owing to the fact, however, that under the present organization of vocational work receiving federal aid such work begins with the ninth year, it has been recognized in the work in agriculture and home-making suggested for the ninth year in this curriculum.

or industrial courses. To offer successfully a curriculum similar to that suggested would require at least three teachers. These would need to be carefully selected. One teacher should be prepared specifically for the instruction in academic subjects; the second in domestic economics and science; and the third, shop and agriculture or some other vocational work. Instruction in music, art, and health education would need to be provided for (for other examples of curriculums for small junior high schools *see* Appendix II).

Problems

1. Study analytically a rural or village school system organized on the seven- or eight-four plan with reference to the lack of articulation between the elementary grades and the high school. In what respects should the junior-high-school plan produce greater continuity in the educative process?
2. Analyze carefully the functions of the junior high school as set forth in Chapter VII for the purpose of determining the characteristics that a small school would need to possess in order to perform those functions.
3. In what respects does the mere inclusion of the seventh and eighth grades in the high school under departmentalized instruction fail to meet the requirements of a real junior high school?
4. Under what conditions would the six-six organization be more practicable than the six-three-three plan for a small community?
5. What are the possible dangers of the six-six organization with reference particularly to the work of the junior years? How might these dangers, in part at least, be avoided?
6. Develop a plan for the general organization and curriculum of a small junior high school that would contain the essential characteristics as discussed in Chapter VII.
7. Make a survey of a local county or community unit and develop a suggestive plan for organizing a system of junior and senior high schools.

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CHAPTER IX

THE SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL IN RURAL AND VILLAGE COMMUNITIES

The aims of the senior high school.—The ultimate aim of the senior high school is the same as that of the junior high school, the promotion of individual and social efficiency. Its subsidiary aims are the same. The relative amount of emphasis to be placed upon any one will be determined, however, by the results obtained in the junior high school and the pupils' interests, aptitudes, and life purposes.

The junior high school, having as one of its functions the building of a bridge from the single curriculum of the elementary school to the differentiated curriculums of the senior high school, uses subjects such as general science and general mathematics, organized on the principle of extensity and combining elements of elementary and secondary education. It recognizes individual differences in capacities, aptitudes, and interests through testing, exploratory, and prevocational courses. It emphasizes pupil guidance. It gives special attention to common, integrating materials, but at the same time through gradual increasing of opportunities for election, it differentiates among individuals and groups.

The senior high school has as its task the continuation of the training given by the junior school but appropriate to the greater maturity and understanding of its pupils. It is concerned, as is the junior school, with health education and a normal physical development; with training for the performance of civic and general social duties; with the

inculcation of habits and ideals of service; with the formation of habits and standards of conduct; and with training in desirable forms of recreation. Giving less emphasis in general to guidance than the junior school, it cannot neglect this important function. All senior-high-school pupils will still need guidance, counsel, and encouragement. Pupils who have not yet decided the question of life work and those planning to enter higher educational institutions will especially be in need of guidance during this period. It should be able, because of the greater maturity and experience of its pupils, to do more effective work than the junior school in developing rational attitudes toward problems of life and the forming of correct habits of thinking. Of peculiar importance in the senior-high-school period is the development of abiding interests and desires, training for home life and parenthood, vocational training, and preparation for higher education. While continuing to a lesser degree attention upon the common and integrating objectives of education, its major emphasis will be, so far as the curriculum elements are concerned, upon differentiation. Where the junior high school permitted some differentiation through variable subjects, the senior high school will differentiate through curriculums.

Relation between the senior and junior schools.—The work of the rural or village senior high school should be closely related to that of the junior high school, or schools, contributory to it. It needs to develop its educational program in harmony with that in those schools, so that pupils passing from them to it will experience no sudden changes in subjects, methods, or standards. In so far as possible, it should afford opportunities for developing through its curriculums the interests and aptitudes, vocational and otherwise, discovered in the try-out and prevocational courses of the junior school. "To coöperate effectively—indeed, to do its work effectively—the senior high school must learn as it has never yet wholly learned

that it must offer for every adolescent something at which he can succeed with profit to himself and to the state. The restricting hand of higher institutions must not be permitted to reach through the senior school to make less profitable the education of any of the pupils in the junior."[1]

Major pupil groups in the small senior high school.—The major groups of pupils whose needs should ordinarily be provided for in a rural or village senior high school may perhaps be classified under four heads. The first group is composed of those boys and girls who do not expect to go beyond the high school, yet do not wish to pursue a vocational curriculum. The needs of this important group have been very inadequately met in the past by the small high school. It is important that they receive in the senior high school a genuinely liberal type of education. It should be of a nature conducive to the growth of abiding interests and appreciations and of as intimate and deep an appreciation and understanding of the significant activities of modern life as possible. The second group contains those pupils preparing to enter higher institutions of learning of one sort or another. Their major work in the senior school will be determined in large measure with reference to the requirements of the institutions for which they are preparing. The third group will be made up of those pupils who plan to enter directly from the school, either before or after graduation, into an occupation, and who desire some vocational training for their work. The fourth group is one heretofore but little recognized in the small high school but one that should become larger as the senior high school in the small community serves more fully the needs of the community. It will be composed of those young men and women who for one reason or another are unable to be in school full time. Ordi-

[1] T. H. Briggs, "The Status of the Junior High School," *Educational Administration and Supervision*, Vol. 9 (April, 1923), p. 200.

narily this group will probably be interested in vocational subjects or subjects closely related to occupational activities. As secondary education becomes more functional in character, however, many of them may be expected to be interested also in the types of work pursued by groups one and two. The senior high school must give attention to the educational needs of all these groups. Within these major groups it must differentiate to as great an extent as its resources in teachers, equipment, and numbers of pupils make practicable.

Curriculum weaknesses of the small four-year high school.—One of the most serious weaknesses of the present four-year high school is the nonfunctional organization of its curriculums. In the first place they are most commonly organized under such headings as general, Latin, classical, scientific, academic, and college preparatory. In the second place, through them all runs a large group of required or constant subjects in the main of a traditional, nonfunctional type. The senior high school in the small community has before it the problem of a functional curriculum organization, the building of curriculums definitely meeting the needs of the different groups of pupils enrolled. It should, so far as it can, offer distinctive curriculums, each designed to meet in as definite a manner as possible the actual needs of a major group of pupils.

The need of curriculum flexibility.—Each curriculum should be flexible. A pupil should not be required to choose a particular curriculum in its entirety but should have some opportunity for adjustment within the curriculum to meet his peculiar combination of interests, abilities, and aptitudes. The smaller the number of curriculums offered by a school the greater is the degree of flexibility desirable within each. "Curriculum differentiation implies the organization of courses into distinctive curriculums definitely planned with reference, not to each individual's personal needs only, but with reference largely to the different edu-

cational requirements of special groups of pupils, curriculums based upon social as well as upon psychological considerations.'' [2]

The curriculum and community analysis.—To meet the requirements of a functional organization of its curriculums requires that the senior high school base its activities upon the activities of society to-day, forecasting as well as it can the trends of the immediate future. It means that every senior school must make frequent surveys of its pupil population as to interests, aptitudes, and life purposes. These surveys should also include the pupils of the contributory junior high schools. Surveys of the intellectual, esthetic, civic, sociability, and economic (consumptional and occupational) activities of the community should be frequently made in as much detail as possible. The cumulative results of these pupil and community studies form the foundation for major adjustments in curriculum offerings and courses of study, in relating the work of the school to the pupils and the community.

The pupil and community needs as shown by the surveys and the educational resources suggested by the activities of the community, when supplemented and enriched by the best and most authoritative knowledge as to the activities and tendencies of the country as a whole, furnish the most important guides in determining the major objectives of the school and what it should do in realizing them. Thus the school will be in a position, not to offer a perfect type of secondary education, but to recognize in practice that ''the primary business of education . . . is to make the student at home in the modern world and to enable him to work in harmony with the dominant forces of his time.'' [3] By building *through* and *out* from the experi-

[2] Johnston, Newlon, and Pickell, *Junior-Senior High School Administration* (Scribner, 1922), p. 22.

[3] Glenn Frank, ''An American Looks at His World,'' *The Century Magazine* (December, 1922).

ence background of the pupil as formed out of his previous school and community contacts it will serve its purpose most effectively. "Constant contact with the local community should give significance to the principles which the student is expected to grasp."[4]

Equality of curriculums.—As a democratic institution the senior school in a small community should not hold any one curriculum above any other in worth and dignity. One weakness of many secondary schools has been that of placing certain curriculums in a more favored light, thus encouraging many pupils fitted neither by ability nor interests to pursue them. All curriculums definitely organized to meet the needs of certain pupil groups should have equal standing in the school. This is essential if pupils are to be free in making their choice and to be encouraged to follow those lines of training best suited to their purposes and needs. Only when all curriculums are looked upon as of equal worth and dignity can educational and vocational guidance function effectively. The standards of achievement, however, for the different curriculums should be the same only in the sense that they demand comparable degrees of effort as determined by the average ability of the members of each group.

Vocational work in the small senior high school.—Where there is need, as determined by what pupils do after leaving school either before or after graduation, vocational curriculums or courses should be offered to meet this need. This should apply, to be sure, only to vocations for which training in the school can be effectively and economically given. The small senior high school is limited in the number of vocational curriculums and courses it can offer. Ordinarily they should be those representing the major occupations of the community, unless the occupations entered by pupils indicate otherwise. The voca-

[4] J. C. Chapman and G. O. Counts, *Principles of Education* (Houghton Mifflin, 1924), p. 455.

tional content of these curriculums and courses should be selected with reference to the actual needs as indicated by the demands made upon the individual for the successful performance of his occupational activities. The length of any vocational curriculum should be determined by the time required to prepare for the vocation. There should also be, in each vocational curriculum, elements pertaining particularly to the objectives of health, civic, sociability, and recreational efficiency. A more detailed discussion of these elements is given in Chapter V.

Many administrators of high schools regard the vocational curriculum as a shunting place for pupils who are unsuccessful in academic work. On the other hand, many vocational instructors point with pride to the fact that their standards are higher than those obtaining in the academic subjects. Both of these views are undoubtedly wrong. The responsibility of the school is to guide each pupil so far as possible into the work for which he is best adapted but it should not use coercion. The pupil should make his own selection. The more efficient the school's system of guidance the more intelligently he will be able to choose. Whatever his choice, if in earnest, he should find work in school that he can pursue profitably. The standards of the vocational work should be based upon the abilities of the pupils pursuing it and the requirements for success in the vocation, and not upon the standards for other pupil groups enrolled in other curriculums.

The problem of required subjects.—Some states set up definite requirements in terms of particular subjects for graduation from the high schools of the state. Often these requirements make up from one-half to three-fourths of the subjects studied by a pupil. Usually they are in great part in terms of higher mathematics, a foreign language, and ancient and medieval history. Such restrictions upon the curriculum content of the small school make it practically impossible to organize its work in terms of pupil

and community needs. It is to be hoped that a more enlightened policy on the part of states in this regard may rapidly develop.

With the exception of English, and of subject matter of proven significant integrating or health values, it is probable that no absolute requirements in terms of subjects are justified in the senior high school. Such requirements are out of harmony with the idea of differentiated curriculums. Any pupil who has satisfied the demands as to number of units of work, those units representing the desirable degrees of continuity and diversity, should be eligible to a diploma of graduation regardless of the particular subjects pursued. In modern complex life with its innumerable avenues for culture, with its almost unlimited treasures in the way of educational materials, no one person, however gifted, can utilize profitably more than a small fraction of these. There are necessarily many paths along which different individuals can acquire the educational experiences most valuable to them as individuals and for the peculiar service which they can render society.

Opportunities for part-time pupils.—In the organization of its program of studies the senior high school should make it possible for pupils who can attend school but part of the day or of the year to carry courses of value to them. Recognition should be given the work done and the opportunity for graduation kept open for those who complete the required number of units of work representing the desirable amount of continuity and diversity. Part-time work should not be restricted to vocational courses, but might well include all types of work offered by the school. It will not be practicable, and usually it will be impossible in the small school, to offer all types of education particularly in the vocational and fine arts subjects. There is need throughout the country for recognition of work of satisfactory standard in music, drawing, and vocations carried under private instruction and through actual voca-

tional experience. Such work, it would seem, should be given credit toward graduation where the school is unable to offer the work in its regular program. Oregon in its state plan for school credit in music taken outside the school is a move in this direction.

The fallacy of the "ruralized" secondary school.—While the rural high school of the past was undoubtedly guilty of the charge of not giving the rural boy and girl any adequate appreciation or understanding of the importance and dignity of rural occupations and rural life, it was probably equally open to the charge of having given neither them nor any of its pupils any adequate appreciation or understanding of the problems of American life in general. The remedy for this condition would seem to be neither that of making no distinction between the work of urban and rural schools, nor that of limiting the curriculums of rural high schools to educational materials and an environment directly related to rural life alone.

The purpose of secondary education in the small community is not to enhance the rural consciousness of rural people as a class or to increase the degree of rural isolation by a restricted perspective of life, but to promote an understanding of all phases of life, rural and urban, and an appreciation of their points of conflict and relationship. There is need in the small senior high school for work of significant values in giving to rural and village youth an understanding and appreciation of the civic, sociability, and economic activities of the country as a whole with reference to their nature, points of conflict, interdependencies, and relationships. In this work of integration the secondary school, whether in the small community or in the large city, should find one of its most important phases of service. A system of secondary education that tends to develop and perpetuate a particular class consciousness or a fixed occupational population cannot be democratic. Democracy can exist only so long

as class or occupational lines, so far as the individual is concerned, remain flexible and unfixed. Another phase of secondary education that is important in the small senior high school is the development of habits and standards of esthetic enjoyment. Many small communities lack such standards.

Secondary education and the girl.—Modern psychology has shown rather conclusively that there are no significant differences between boys and girls with respect to mental traits. Public high schools and coeducational colleges and universities have shown no significant differences in ability to carry successfully the various school subjects. From these facts some have shortsightedly concluded that the education of the youth of both sexes should be the same. The practice of the small high school especially has been in harmony with this view. Viewing education from the social angle, however, shows that in certain important respects secondary education should differentiate between the education of boys and girls. In many important particulars their function in society must necessarily differ. The girl is naturally to become, in the majority of cases, a home-maker with all that it implies as to duties and responsibilities of keeping a home, caring for children, and the manifold duties of organizing and managing a household. For the race and the state it is important that she be prepared to enter upon these duties intelligently. Under modern conditions the woman has the major responsibility in determining what the family consumes in the way of food and clothing, and in guiding and supplying its wants in art, music, literature, and sociability. Although a great deal has been done in the small high school in the way of home-making courses for girls, only a beginning has been made in meeting the peculiar educational needs of the girl. The majority go out from the small high school with little or no education pertaining to their most vital service to society.

Every rural and village senior high school it would seem should give some work directly pertaining to homemaking either of a nonvocational or vocational nature. Such work should not alone deal with the skills and practices of the housewife but, what is more important probably for most girls, with a woman's place, duties, and responsibilities in a democratic form of society: the significance of the home as the center of family life, and the qualities it should have to meet the health, esthetic, recreational, intellectual, and moral needs of its members.

Civic education.—With the entrance of woman into active participation in the civic and economic life of the community, state, and nation, the girl has as her right from the secondary school the opportunity for training in the subjects that will give her an understanding and appreciation of those phases of human affairs. Boys also, particularly those not going to college, have need of more training relative to modern civic and economic problems than they have received in the small high school in the past. The senior high school should give a more vital training to both sexes relative to these problems.

Modernized classroom instruction.—Studies of classroom instruction in small high schools indicate that it is very frequently of a formal type. Individuality in thinking and work has not been stressed, in fact, has often been discouraged. Individuals of superior ability have not been pressed to use their abilities to the full and those of inferior ability have either been neglected or driven to attain standards arbitrarily determined with respect to the upper 50 per cent. Little opportunity for, or encouragement in, the development of correct habits of study, of resourcefulness and initiative in the location, attack, or solution of significant problems, or practice in the discovery, collection, evaluation, interpretation, and organization of facts pertaining to topics and problems, is ordinarily given. Too frequently the work of the classroom consists

of the interchange between pupils and teacher of information already known by all and memorized from a common textbook. Little is done to develop in the pupil those characteristics suggested, yet they are undoubtedly of inestimable value in the citizen of a democracy. The senior high school is the educational institution which must be held primarily responsible for their development. That the high school has not done so in the past has been due largely to the disciplinary and informational aims of secondary education. In the small high school it has also been due in part to the meagerness of equipment, especially in the matter of library facilities.

The library in the small senior high school.—The senior high school in the small community needs a good working library, easily accessible and supplied with study tables and reference aids. Its need of a library is relatively greater than that of the city high school because there are usually in the community no other library facilities. The senior high school in the rural or village community has in its environs excellent materials for the study at first hand of many phases of natural and social science that it has heretofore but little utilized. It should extend out into the community for much of its subject matter, ceasing to look upon secondary education as a classroom-textbook process.

The senior high school as a community center.—In many small villages, and especially in rural communities, the senior high school has the opportunity of becoming the center for the intellectual, esthetic, sociability, and civic life of the community. Many high schools have gone far in the direction of realizing this opportunity. In other communities little is done along these lines. In some there is much duplication of effort and unnecessary expense resulting from the uncoördinated efforts of independent and often competing agencies. In many cases a village library and a school library, both ill-equipped, and with practically

no library service, are functioning in a very inefficient manner. If all library facilities were centered at the high school much better service might be afforded both school and community. Often the school has no or at best inadequate auditorium and gymnasium facilities while at the same time the community is burdening itself by attempting to keep up a community hall. The needs of both school and community would often be better met and at less expense by providing for the school a good gymnasium and auditorium available also for community activities. In a large number of new centralized schools in various sections of the country this has been done successfully.

The senior high school in the small community might well become the center for the activities of the community in music and art. It is probable that in many communities it will in time through lectures, discussion groups, etc., supply stimulus and guidance for the people in promoting their interests in history, literature, science, and the other educational interests of an active, progressive society. It should become the clearing house for much of the extension work carried on by colleges and universities and other educational agencies. Finally the senior high school in the small community should be the educational center of the community which it serves and not, as the small high school so often is, an institution isolated from all or the greater part of the significant activities of the people it serves. In all its activities, however, it should exist primarily for the education of the youth of the community, and all expansion should be for the ultimate purpose of improving the educational opportunities of youth.

The small four-year high school.—In communities where secondary education is continued on the plan of the four-year high school, the high school should combine in so far as possible the desirable characteristics of both the junior and senior schools. This may be accomplished in some degree by offering in the first year subjects organized on

the principle of extensity, as general mathematics and general science. It can do much by placing in the first two years subjects closely related to community life, as community civics and the study of occupations. Provision should be made for try-out courses and work of a prevocational type. The work also should be organized so that every time unit will have value for the pupil regardless of what has gone before or what follows: problem or project organization would help in the realization of this result. The college preparatory subjects should, so far as possible, be delayed until the last two years, placing in the first two years those subjects of interest and value to the greatest number of pupils.

Especial attention should be given to the discovery of abilities, interests, aptitudes, and life purposes during the first year. The administering of an effective system of guidance should be one of the important phases of the school's organization during the first two years. The home room might very profitably be an important part of the school's plan for beginning pupils. Emphasis should be given to supervised study and the guidance of pupils in methods of study and in following study programs. The selection by the pupil of a particular curriculum should ordinarily be postponed until the second year. By reorganizing its work in the way suggested, the small four-year high school could do much to make the transition from the elementary school easier than it ordinarily has been and would probably become a more effective, more democratic type of secondary school than is the average four-year high school of to-day.

Problems

1. What should be the relationship between the senior high school and its contributory junior high school or schools?

2. To what extent and in what direction should the work of a senior high school be modified to meet community needs?

3. What factors should have weight in determining the range and nature of the work of a small senior high school?

4. Make a study of all pupils who have gone out of a particular high school either before or at graduation over a period of five to ten years. To what degree does the training they received seem to be of direct values in their present major life activities?

5. In what respects, if any, should the education of boys and girls differ in the senior high school? Upon what principles would you base your answers?

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CHAPTER X

THE JUNIOR COLLEGE

The junior-college movement.—The junior college represents a movement that should come to have great significance in the education of the youth of rural and village communities. Like the junior high school, it is in a real sense a development of the present century. It is true that educational leaders earlier called attention to the secondary-school character of the first two years of college work and indicated the desirability of considering those years as such in the organization of education. In the last decade of the nineteenth century both the University of Chicago and the University of California recognized in a definite manner the distinction between the first two years of college work and the last two years. Not until 1902, however, when one was established in Joliet, Illinois, did a junior college develop in connection with a high school.

California was the first state to give official recognition to the new institution when in 1907 its legislature passed a law authorizing high-school districts to prescribe two years of work for high-school graduates. Fresno, which established in 1910 a junior college in connection with its high school, was the first to take advantage of this law.

Types of junior colleges.—In 1922, according to Koos, there were over 200 junior colleges in the United States. These were distributed over thirty-seven states. They may be roughly classified under four types: (1) the first two years of a college or university organized as a division differentiated from the two later years, as found in the University of Chicago, the University of California, etc.,

(2) junior colleges in connection with normal schools and teachers colleges, (3) two-year private colleges, and (4) the public junior college usually in connection with public high schools. The present discussion will be concerned primarily with the last type mentioned.

The development of the junior college as an institution, especially in connection with the public high school, is too recent as yet for the formulation in detail of any definite statements as to just what its place will be ultimately in the system of education as a whole. In general, however, it seems safe to say that its aim should be like that of the other units of secondary education, the promotion of individual and social efficiency. It should carry on the education of youth in the light of this aim without break from the point where the work of the senior high school stops. It should, according to the maturity, capacities, interests, aptitudes, and purposes of its student population, organize its curriculums, subject matter, and standards to meet life needs as determined by life activities and their concomitant standards and ideals. Its subsidiary aims should be the same as those of the other units of secondary education: health, economic, civic, sociability, intellectual, esthetic, recreational, and religious efficiency. Its objectives should be determined with reference to those aims and life activities and the needs of young men and women of junior-college age, as differentiated into groups with similar interests, aptitudes, and purposes.

Purposes of the junior college.—Some progress has already been made in the analysis of the special purposes or functions of the junior college. Koos in his analysis of the existing literature on the junior college and catalogs of such institutions finds over twenty purposes mentioned. These he has reduced to five main headings: "(1) giving satisfactorily the first two years of curricula in liberal arts and in preprofessional and professional work; (2) democratizing educational opportunities on the level of

the first two college years; (3) exercising conserving and socializing influences in ways impossible in larger colleges and universities; (4) fostering the inevitable reorganization of secondary and higher education; and (5) bringing together into a single institution all work essentially similar in order to effect better organization of courses and obviate wasteful duplication."[1]

The following statements of special purposes seem to incorporate those most often given by writers on the junior college, which promise most in the development of an institution meeting the educational needs of students in the first two years immediately following the work of the senior high school:

1. To democratize educational opportunities for the entire period primarily secondary in character.
2. To make possible a continuance of home influences during the first two years beyond the senior high school.
3. To place in a single institution all work of a secondary character and thus facilitate a sound organization and reduce unnecessary duplication.
4. To give a favorable opportunity for social training and the development of qualities of leadership through practice.
5. To give adequate attention to the individual student and to provide guidance.
6. To give two years of liberal education beyond the senior high school adapted to the needs of those not going beyond the junior college.
7. To give the equivalent of the first two years of curriculums both of the liberal arts and professional types now offered in colleges and universities.
8. To give vocational education in those occupations representing the middle levels.

The junior college and educational opportunities of youth in small communities.—A system of junior colleges, organized to serve the purposes mentioned above and with

[1] L. V. Koos, "The Junior College Movement," *The New Republic*, Vol. 36 (November, 1923), p. 22.

reference to the actual educational needs of all graduates of the senior high school, should do much to improve the educational opportunities of the youth of village and country. By relating its work definitely to that done in the senior high school and placing in a single institution all work of a secondary character, the junior college should give continuity to education throughout the entire secondary period. By making an additional two years of study more accessible to great numbers of young men and women it should encourage many to go on who would otherwise leave school with graduation from the senior high school. The cost to the student should be less than it is for the first two years in colleges and universities. It should facilitate and bring to realization the adaptation of the work of the junior-college years to regional needs. To a large degree it should make possible the continuance of home influences for two years beyond the senior high school. In all these ways greater democratization of educational opportunities should be effected than at present exists.

Advantages of junior college in training in leadership. —As a general thing students in the first two years of the regular four-year colleges and universities have but little chance to develop qualities of leadership through definite responsibility for the direction and control of student activities. To the upper-classmen through custom and naturally are given the positions of major influence in the student body. In the junior college a favorable opportunity for social training and the development of qualities of leadership and followership through actual practice should be afforded. In an institution the purposes of which are the education of youth in the first two years following the senior high school, and where numbers of students and size of classes will be comparatively small, it should be possible to give each student close individual attention to an extent not ordinarily given him in the larger institutions of the

regular type. Conditions would be favorable for developing a system of guidance, highly desirable for students of junior-college age.

Adaptation to educational needs.—The junior college, it would seem, can afford, at the minimum cost, work the equivalent of the first two years of curriculums both of the liberal arts and preprofessional types now given in colleges and universities to students who plan to continue their work toward academic degrees. An even greater service of the junior college should be rendered in making available in a favorable atmosphere to young men and women not going beyond the junior college lines of work actually meeting their needs and with a flexibility permitting adjustment to individual interests and aptitudes. Opportunities for vocational education, determined by the needs and demands of the region served and the student population, should be afforded in those vocations where preparation can be made within the junior-college period.

Curriculum organization and content.—One of the most important problems of the junior college serving rural and village youth is that of curriculum content and organization. In general the principles of curriculum building for a junior college should be, it would seem, those outlined in Chapter V. Provision should undoubtedly be made for those who plan to continue their education in colleges and universities. Equal provision should be made for those students who do not expect to continue their formal education beyond the junior college. Those who wish to pursue a liberal curriculum should find the studies meeting their needs and interests, without undue requirements in terms of specific subjects. Those who wish vocational training of a character that can be given in the junior college should, in so far as practicable in any junior college, find opportunity for such training.

In the organization of curriculums in the junior college

the desirability of requiring any constants of all students would appear doubtful. All constants should have been sufficiently taken care of by the end of the senior-high-school course. Each curriculum should be designed to meet the needs of the group of students choosing it, particularly in liberal curriculums permitting of much flexibility in the nature and grouping of subjects making up any student's work. Each curriculum should have a core of subjects representing the student's major interest or purpose, a related minor group, ordinarily a second minor group to be selected by the student, and a group of unrestricted or subject electives. The curriculums of any junior college should articulate closely with the work given in the senior high schools contributory to it.

If the junior college is to develop into an institution one of the purposes of which is the democratizing of education in the first two years following the senior high school, less stress should be placed upon those subjects having a place traditionally in the first two years of four-year colleges and more emphasis upon subjects of direct values for intelligent, appreciative participation in the affairs of modern life. Koos found that the largest offerings in existing junior-college curriculums were modern foreign languages, science, the social subjects, English, ancient languages, and mathematics. Moderate offerings were made in commerce, home economics, engineering, and industrial courses and education. Among those subjects but little emphasized were public speaking, philosophy, psychology, physical education, music, art, agriculture, and other occupational subjects.[2] It seems certain that, if the junior college serves its mission, a large percentage of its students will receive in it their final formal education. This will necessitate the development of curriculums de-

[2] L. V. Koos, "The Junior College," Research Bulletin of the University of Minnesota No. 5, Education Series (1924), Ch. iii, p. 30.

signed to meet the needs of such students and free from the requirements, particularly in foreign languages and higher mathematics, ordinarily imposed upon those looking toward a college degree.

Junior college curriculums should be based upon results of scientific study.—For those desiring two years of liberal education there should undoubtedly be ample offerings in social science, science, art, music, psychology, and other subjects possessing significant values for efficient participation in human affairs and for individual satisfaction. For those wishing to continue vocational training begun in the senior high school or to prepare during the junior-college years for entering a vocation opportunites should be afforded. The vocational curriculums offered should be determined by the demands of the student population and the educational needs of the region served. Two quotations from an article by Leonard [3] may be given to summarize what seems to be a sound view on the work of the junior college: "Personally, I am convinced that there are distinctive fields which schools of the junior-college type alone can serve successfully. Such fields for service exist now in cultural, civic, and professional education. . . . In passing, may I suggest that the cultural and civic fields for junior-college instruction can never be met by taking over into the junior college one-half of the four-year liberal arts course; or by extending the high school instruction; or by conferring with college professors or with other groups of educators or citizens. The 'clues' will come from a study of the cultural and civic needs of the millions of young people of the ages eighteen to twenty-one who are not enrolled in our American colleges. . . . To make a long story short, the middle level occupations are all potentially open to junior colleges. They represent

[3] R. J. Leonard, "Professional Education in Junior Colleges," *Teachers College Record*, Vol. 26 (May, 1925), pp. 726, 731.

permanent and distinctive fields for which junior colleges alone can train prospective workers."

Entrance requirements.—The entrance requirements in the junior college should as a general practice probably be graduation from a senior high school. These requirements should not, however, it would seem, be in terms of any fixed list of subjects. The junior college serving any region and with contributory senior high schools, with curriculums designed to meet in the best way possible the needs of their pupils, should be open to the graduates from any curriculum of those schools demanding for its completion the regular number of high-school credit units. No arbitrary standards in terms of foreign language or higher mathematics should be imposed for entrance upon those not preparing for continuance of college work toward a degree. In just the degree that the junior college sets up and demands as requirements subjects primarily of value to those continuing their work beyond the junior college will it become impossible for it to function as it should. In regions where there is a need, the junior college should probably develop courses in vocational and liberal subjects for mature young men and women who did not complete the work of the senior high school but who desire to continue their education along particular lines.

Problems of location and support.—The development of adequate junior-college facilities for the youth of rural and village communities will require not only a close study of curriculum problems, but a careful consideration of problems of administration and organization. The questions of location and support are of prime importance. Usually the furnishing of opportunities for junior-college education to the young men and women of small communities will mean the organization of a junior college in connection with a high school which, with a number of contributory high schools in contiguous districts, will form the junior-college district. Unless these districts are care-

fully determined, many weak, inadequately staffed, equipped, and supported institutions are likely to come into existence. To ensure the development of institutions capable of realizing effectively all the legitimate purposes of the junior college will undoubtedly require a state districting agency as well as considerable state financial support.

Developments in Michigan and California.—Michigan and California offer two examples of state legislation bearing upon the establishment of junior colleges. In Michigan any school district with a total population of 30,000 or more may establish a junior college. In California a law was passed in 1921 authorizing the organization of three types of junior-college districts: (*a*) a junior-college district coterminous with any high-school district; (*b*) a union junior-college district, containing two or more contiguous high-school districts in the county; and (*c*) the county junior-high-school district. In each district of whatever type there must be an average daily high-school attendance of at least 400 and a property valuation of at least $10,000,000. In California each junior-college district receives from the state $2,000 per annum and $100 for each student in average daily attendance provided the district during the preceding school year has provided an amount for maintenance equal to the amount appropriated by the state. Judd in his suggestions on the establishment of junior colleges in Texas recommended a property valuation of at least $10,000,000 and a high-school enrollment of not fewer than 400 pupils.[4]

Junior-college standards.—To offer work of desirable range and variety a junior college should be large enough to support several instructors devoting themselves exclusively to instruction in junior-college subjects. Koos sug-

[4] C. H. Judd, "Secondary Education," *Texas Educational Survey Report* (1924), Vol. 3, Ch. iii, p. 79.

gests a minimum of five instructors.[5] Accepting five as the minimum number in the teaching staff of a junior college would indicate probably a minimum student enrollment of 125 to 150.

In large part, desirable standards for junior colleges serving the needs of groups of rural and village communities can only be developed through experience and a scientific study of needs. The types of work offered can only be determined in the light of such studies. Certainly the training of instructors should include some graduate work or the equivalent in their special fields. Laboratory, shop, and library facilities should be adequate for the needs of students of eighteen to twenty-one years of age in the lines of work offered. Study rooms should be ample. Complete systems of cumulative student records should be maintained. An effective system of counseling and guidance should be in operation. Some one giving practically full time to the administration and organization of the junior-college unit and to the working out of its policies would appear to be an essential part of its organization.

Conclusion.—In conclusion it seems that the development of state systems of junior colleges should result in great improvement in the opportunities for education of young men and women of rural and village communities. If these institutions are to realize in service what they promise potentially, their work must be determined as scientifically as possible in the light of the demands of modern life and the resulting needs of American youth of junior-college age. They must not overstress or limit their educational offerings to those studies now in the first two years of four-year liberal arts colleges. They must, unhampered by tradition, develop curriculums and standards

[5] L. V. Koos, "The Junior College," Research Bulletin of University of Minnesota No. 5, Education Series (1924), Ch. xl, pp. 628-629.

suitable to the needs and interests of those whose formal education and training will terminate with the junior college. They should offer without break two additional years of functional education to the graduates from any senior-high-school curriculum which requires for its completion a full senior-high-school course.

Problems

1. Study the junior-college movement with special attention to the arguments for its development. Are these in any way similar to those advanced in the development of the junior high school?
2. In what respects have the first two years of college work as generally given been of secondary-school character?
3. Make a careful study of the purposes of the junior college, analyzing in some detail the ways in which each of these purposes might be realized.
4. In what directions does the junior college make possible adaptations to the needs of high-school graduates not ordinarily made in four-year colleges?
5. What advantages particularly important should a system of junior colleges offer to young people of rural and village communities?

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PART IV

THE INTERNAL ORGANIZATION OF THE SECONDARY SCHOOL AND ITS ADAPTATION TO THE SMALL COMMUNITY

CHAPTER XI

THE ORGANIZATION OF THE SCHOOL'S PROGRAM OF ACTIVITIES

Organization and administration as factors in school efficiency.—The effectiveness of the work of any secondary school is determined in a large measure by the organization and administration of its activities. In the small high school the organization is not so complex as in the large school, but it is no less essential. Furthermore, many of the problems facing the principal of the small school in planning its activities are peculiar and difficult.

In his organization of the school's program the principal is laying the foundation for the realization of the work his school should accomplish. Through it he is coördinating all the activities of the school by adjusting the relations of the various teachers and pupils to the school as a whole. Though he is the authoritative head, his organization should be democratic, utilizing the abilities and experience of the members of his staff. It should indicate clearly and definitely the duties and responsibilities of everybody in the school. In the organization of his school the principal should regard the pupil as the center: all details of the program should be with reference to him, to furnish the best conditions possible for economy and effectiveness in the learning process. Organization is not an end in itself but a means of promoting the development of individually and socially efficient individuals of the pupils in the school. It should be such as to give an environment suitable to the attainment of all the objectives of secondary education.

Organization is necessary because of the complexity of the duties, responsibilities, and interests represented. Through it the various activities are unified and systematized to avoid conflicts and to economize the time and energy of the workers. Systematization should go only to the point of giving the most effective working conditions and should not become so machinelike as to kill initiative and feeling of responsibility either on the part of teachers or pupils. It should be vital, adjustable to new needs and conditions, flexible but not vacillating.

Detailed information an essential to good organization.—Preliminary to the organization of the program the principal should have at hand detailed information concerning his school. Among the facts essential are those concerning pupils: number in school, curriculum pursued, year in school, and individual subject programs. He should also know the number of pupils planning to enter high school from contributory elementary schools or, in the case of a senior high school, from contributory junior high schools. He should have the subject programs of those pupils. With regard to his teachers he needs to know the subjects each is prepared to teach and the extraclass activities for which each is able to assume responsibility. He should be thoroughly familiar with his building as to classrooms, laboratories, shops, etc., the capacity of each, and the type of work each can best accommodate. He should know definitely the entrances, halls, etc., and have a plan for their effective utilization. He should develop a definite plan for utilizing the whole plant economically and effectively, keeping in mind at all times the convenience of teachers and pupils.

In the small high school the principal has a multiplicity of duties varied in nature. Usually his teaching schedule is heavy. His office work is often done with little assistance. Consequently, such important duties as supervision of instruction, counseling with pupils, conferences with

teachers and parents, general oversight and direction of extraclass activities, inspection of the building, and the development of plans and policies are performed as time permits. In order that he may meet all the demands upon him, he must give all his duties careful consideration in his organization of the school. Frequently the principal becomes buried in his teaching and office and is compelled to neglect the other important phases of his work because of poor organization.

The teacher and the administration of the school.—He should recognize that the primary function of his teachers is that of classroom instruction. Nevertheless, for the effectiveness of the school as a whole, it is necessary that they assume other responsibilities. Within limits the performance of these other duties tends to increase their efficiency as classroom instructors. In the first place, the principal should regard the staff as his administrative cabinet with which he considers the problems of internal administration and organization and to which he looks for suggestions as to ways and means for improving the work of the school. Taking part in the discussion of school problems and sharing some responsibilities for the management and policies of the school not only ensures more intelligent coöperation of teachers in carrying on its activities, but operates in the direction of a desirable *esprit de corps* in the faculty.

The keeping of records.—The keeping of records is an essential phase of secondary-school administration. In the small high school frequently too few records are at hand to enable either principal or teachers to perform their duties most effectively. Pupil guidance especially requires pupil records much more complete than the principal alone can gather or tabulate. Where possible the services of a clerk should be utilized in keeping records up to date and systematically filed. Even where office help is available, however, the principal must delegate certain responsibilities

in the matter of records and reports to the teachers, as the keeping of attendance records, pupils' marks, and monthly and term reports. The way in which this is to be done should be definitely planned and the work distributed so that each instructor knows what his responsibilities are.

Pupil supervision and guidance.—All pupil activities need supervision and guidance. Each teacher should ordinarily in a small high school be an adviser for some extra-class activity. So far as possible these assignments should be such as to capitalize upon the different teachers' special abilities. Each adviser should know what his advisership involves in the way of responsibilities and the relationship he bears to the principal relative to the administration and control of the activities concerned.

An essential phase of the work of the secondary school is pupil guidance. It is of special importance in the junior high school. In the small high school the principal should know all pupils personally and so far as possible should be available to all pupils for counsel and advice. Even in a small school, however, he cannot alone adequately perform this function. He must delegate responsibility for guidance to other members of the staff. As to just what distribution of guidance work will be most satisfactory, the nature of the school and the training and experience of the teachers will determine. In the high school of fifty to 100 pupils the best distribution may be for the principal, where a man, to act as adviser for the boys of the school and one of the women teachers as adviser for the girls. Whatever the size of the school there should be a woman counsellor for girls. In larger schools a more effective plan, perhaps, is to appoint teachers as advisers to groups of twenty-five to thirty pupils. These groups should ordinarily be composed of pupils in the first half of their school course or of pupils in the second half. Sometimes it is deemed desirable to have boys and girls in separate groups, especially in the senior high school. In some high

schools assignment of advisers to groups of pupils pursuing a certain curriculum is found desirable. This is especially true in senior high schools where vocational work is offered. In some schools all pupils of any one year in the course are assigned to one adviser. Where pupils from the school attend various colleges and other higher institutions one member of the staff may well become primarily responsible as adviser of this group.

In the junior high school the home-room teacher should ordinarily become the adviser to pupils belonging to that home room. This plan may also be carried through the senior high school. Where attendance records, excuses for absence, report cards, etc., are first made out or checked by teachers, the home-room plan simplifies the distribution of such duties.

Duties pertaining to the supervision of halls, study rooms, and library, where the teachers are responsible for these, should be definitely assigned. They should be equitably distributed and so arranged as to fit in most effectively with each instructor's teaching schedule.

Planning the schedule.—Planning the schedule of work is one of the most difficult problems in the organization of the small high school. It involves among others the question of range and variety of subjects best meeting the educational needs of the pupils; the number and length of class periods in the school day; the equitable distribution of teaching load among the instructors; the most effective utilization of classrooms, laboratories, library, shop, study room, and halls; and the distribution of each pupil's work over the day to afford the conditions most conducive to learning and the development of desirable habits of work. The schedule should be ready to go into operation on the first day of school, with the possible exception of minor adjustments.

Preliminary steps in schedule building.—The first step in making the schedule is getting the data as to the sub-

jects pupils expect to take and the number of pupils enrolling for each subject. In the small high school where only two or three curriculums are offered, and where there is only one section in each subject, the principal knows beforehand the classes needed in the required studies. Where there are electives available to pupils, he must have definite information as to the electives chosen and the number of pupils enrolled for each. He also needs data showing the number of pupils entering from contributory schools and the subjects they plan to carry. This information should be collected at least two or three weeks before the close of the preceding semester, all pupils making out tentatively their programs at that time. The pupils should make out their programs under the guidance of their advisers or in the smaller schools, where more practicable, under the guidance of the principal. They should be given time to consult with their parents before completing their subject enrollment.

Building the schedule.—With the pupils' programs in and the results tabulated, the principal has his working materials for building his schedule. In determining the position of the various subjects he must keep in mind pupils, teachers, and rooms. Regular subjects in each year's work must not conflict and should be distributed throughout the day to give each pupil, in so far as possible, a balanced program. The assignment of classes to each teacher should be equitable and well distributed. Where classes are taught in a large study room, such classes should ordinarily be distributed among the teachers. They should be the smaller classes except that classes in mathematics and foreign languages should not meet in the study hall unless necessary. Where the home-room plan is in effect, it is desirable to have the first period class scheduled with the home-room teacher. Whenever it is possible classes should be assigned to the rooms best adapted in size and equipment for the respective subjects. Unless

outweighed by other factors such as suitability of room for specific types of work, size of class, etc., rooms should be so scheduled as to necessitate the minimum amount of change on the part of the teacher. At all events each instructor should have one room where he can keep his materials and do his work.

To give every pupil an opportunity to participate in extraclass activities, the schedule should be so arranged as to leave at least one period a week open for club meetings and assembly. Where the school is organized on the sixty-minute recitation-study plan, each period in either the forenoon or afternoon may be shortened fifteen minutes one or two days a week and thus give an extra period on those days for the accommodation of assembly and extraclass activities. This has the advantage of not reducing the number of class meetings for any subject. A place in the daily schedule for extraclass activities is especially desirable in centralized schools where pupils are transported to and from school and in schools attended by pupils from smaller village or rural schools. Unless such activities come in the regular school program, such pupils are often unable to take any part in pupil activities.

In some high schools the plan of shifting the assembly from one period to another and dismissing at each assembly all classes affected is followed. This plan is advantageous in schools where outside talent is frequently used on the assembly program. It makes it easy to adjust the time of the assembly to the hour convenient for the person from outside. Where no definite provision is made otherwise for supervised study, pupil conferences, etc., some small high schools have schedules arranged with one free period throughout the week to be used as needed for conferences, extraclass activities, assembly, and study. In general this plan would appear to be uneconomical.

Where the junior and senior high schools are in the same building, and especially where taught wholly or in part by

the same instructors, it is an advantage to have the entire schedule arranged on the basis of one-hour periods. A sixty-minute period is almost essential in the junior high school if an effective system of supervised study is to be operated. It is also desirable in the senior high school. There is a growing tendency, now operating successfully in many city high schools, to put all studies, with the exception sometimes of prevocational and vocational subjects, on a standard one-hour basis. This scheme does away with practically all double periods and simplifies the problem of schedule making. In the small high school especially this removes one of the greatest difficulties of schedule making. It tends in laboratory sciences to knit classroom and laboratory work more closely together than was the practice where two double periods a week were set aside for laboratory work only. In addition, the sixty-minute period every day throughout the week actually gives more time for science than it received under a schedule of three forty- and two eighty-minute periods: under the new plan it receives a total of 300 minutes a week; under the old plan it was allotted only 280 minutes.

The use of the block plan.—In making the schedule for the small high school where there is only one section in most of the subjects, a modified form of the block plan is of assistance. A practicable scheme is to make on a large sheet of cardboard a block diagram of the schedule, representing each period of the day by a block. On small slips of cardboard is written each subject and the name of the instructor. Each block is then filled with nonconflicting subjects and adjustments made as necessary to make better distribution of each teacher's schedule and the program of pupils in each year's work. In making up a schedule it is usually most satisfactory to arrange, first, double-period subjects; second, regular four- or five-period required subjects; third, four- or five-period elective sub-

jects; and fourth, subjects of less than four periods a week. Some principals prefer a rotating schedule where each block of classes shifts each succeeding day to a later period (see Appendix III). This scheme has the good point of equalizing among the different classes whatever advantages for mental activity there may be in different parts of the school day. It makes it possible to plan field trips for any class on the day when that class meets during the last period. It has the disadvantage of making impossible any regular program of work for the individual pupil. This would seem to be a serious objection in the secondary school.

The desirability of some permanency to a schedule.—In the majority of small high schools a brand new schedule is made for each semester's work. This is a waste of the principal's time and energy and makes it impossible for the pupils to plan their programs for any length of time ahead. When a satisfactory schedule is worked out for a year it might better be followed, at least in its major items, for two or three years, making adjustments only in elective subjects not offered each semester. A relatively permanent schedule gives the pupil an opportunity to plan the major items of his program for a year or more in advance and to foresee the adjustments that he will need to make.

Alternation of subjects.—A serious problem in the small high school is that of offering a program of studies of desirable breadth and variety, at the same time keeping within reasonable limits the cost per pupil hour and the teaching load of instructors. As a partial solution to this problem many small schools use alternation of subjects. According to this plan each subject of an alternating pair is given only every other year. The plan not only makes possible a considerable increase in the number of subjects the school can offer, but tends also to reduce the number of extremely small classes.

Alternation of subjects requires careful planning.—In using a system of subject alternation, careful planning is necessary. To avoid confusion and conflicts, and at the same time to give all pupils an opportunity to profit by the enriched program, the scheme of alternation must be definitely worked out for a period of years. Under the junior-senior organization there will ordinarily be no alternation of subjects in the seventh and eighth years. In the ninth year with increasing curriculum differentiation, alternation may become desirable among variable subjects. In the eleventh and twelfth years, where classes usually run small, alternation is often desirable and practicable in both variable and constant subjects.

To protect against administrative difficulties in building the daily program in both the junior-senior and the four-year high school, alternations should ordinarily be made between ninth- and tenth-year subjects as a cycle and eleventh- and twelfth-year subjects as the second alternating cycle. In some cases as, for example, where a particular foreign language is offered only in alternate years, alternations between the ninth and tenth and the tenth and eleventh years are necessary. For pedagogical as well as administrative reasons it is usually thought unwise to permit pupils representing a spread over more than two years to pursue courses in the same class.

The alternation cycle.—To plan a program for a number of years for a system of alternation, it is desirable to develop a cycle of alternating subjects. This may be accomplished by arranging one list of subjects to be offered in school years beginning with an even number as 1928, 1930, etc., and a second alternating list for school years beginning with an odd number as 1929, 1931, etc. Below is given an example for a junior-senior high school of six teachers, organized on the basis of a six-period day with one-hour recitation-study periods. The particular subjects in the illustration, as in the later illustrations in this

chapter, are only suggestive. Different schools should select the subjects for their programs according to their needs. The principle of alternation, however, is the same in all cases. It is assumed that the school is inaugurating the system in 1928 for the first time.

Subjects Offered in the Even Years as 1928, 1930, etc.	*Subjects Offered in the Odd Years as 1929, 1931, etc.*
English 1	English 1
English 2	English 2
English 3	English 3
English 4	English 4
English 6 and 5	English 5 and 6
General Mathematics 1	General Mathematics 1
General Mathematics 2	General Mathematics 2
Algebra 3	Algebra 3
Plane Geometry 4	Plane Geometry 4
Social Science 1	Social Science 1
Social Science 2	Social Science 2
United States History and Civics 3	United States History and Civics 3
Modern History	Modern History
or	*or*
General History 4	General History 4
American History and Government 6 and 5	Economics and Institutional Life 5 and 6
Science 1	Science 1
Science 2	Science 2
General Science 3	General Science 3
Biology 4	Biology 4
Physics 6 and 5	Chemistry 5 and 6
Foreign Language 4 and 3	Foreign Language 3 and 4
Foreign Language 5 and 4	Foreign Language 4 and 5
Shop 1	Shop 1
Shop 2	Shop 2
Prevocational Agriculture 2	Prevocational Agriculture 2
Agriculture 4 and 3	Agriculture 3 and 4
Agriculture 6 and 5	Agriculture 5 and 6
Home Economics 1	Home Economics 1
Home Economics 2	Home Economics 2
Home-making 4 and 3	Home-making 3 and 4

Subjects Offered in the Even Years as 1928, 1930, etc.	*Subjects Offered in the Odd Years as 1929, 1931, etc.*
Home-making 6 and 5	Home-making 5 and 6
Music 1	Music 1
Music 2	Music 2
Junior Chorus 1, 2, 3	Junior Chorus 1, 2, 3
Senior Chorus 4, 5, 6	Senior Chorus 4, 5, 6
Drawing 1	Drawing 1
Drawing 2	Drawing 2

NOTE: The subjects with the double number, as 6 and 5, are the subjects alternating. The first number in each instance shows the year in which the subject normally belongs, the second number shows the year of the pupils who are combined with the pupils normally belonging to the class. For example, in 1928 sixth-year English is given to sixth- and fifth-year pupils; in 1929 fifth-year English is given to fifth- and sixth-year pupils, etc.

An illustrative daily schedule.—On pages 222-224 is an illustration of a daily schedule built up on the plan of alternation suggested. It is assumed that the faculty is composed of six teachers including the principal: two men and four women. In this schedule all subjects are placed on the sixty-minute single-period basis except home-making and agriculture. Home-making and agriculture are given seven periods a week. All vocational courses in small high schools may be reduced to seven periods and still receive but thirty minutes less time a week than under the scheme of ten forty-five-minute periods. Health education is given in connection with the courses in science as well as in periods definitely assigned to health education. In schools where gymnasium facilities are not available, ten-minute periods for setting up exercises, etc., may be substituted by shortening five minutes each the first and second periods in each half-day.

The extraclass activities should be distributed among the teachers in the suggested program in such a manner as best to equalize each teacher's load. The alternations used in this schedule are:

American History and Government with Economics and Institutional Life.
Physics with Chemistry
English 5 with English 6
Agriculture 3 with Agriculture 4
Agriculture 5 with Agriculture 6
Home-making 3 with Home-making 4
Home-making 5 with Home-making 6
Beginning foreign language is open to third- and fourth-year pupils, and second-year foreign language to fourth- and fifth-year pupils.

In many schools it would probably be desirable to have some of the classes meet fewer times a week than indicated thus reducing the teaching load.

An illustrative program of alternation and daily schedule for a small four-year high school.—The examples, on pages 226-229, giving a diagrammatic representation of a program of subject alternation and an accompanying suggested daily schedule, is an adaptation by George A. Works of Cornell University of the plan presented by Inglis for small high schools of Indiana. It is designed for a four-year school staffed by three instructors and operating on a seven forty-five-minute class-period school day.

The pupil's daily program.—An item of administration often neglected in the small high school is the pupil's daily program. This should be definitely made out, kept correct to date, and placed on file in the principal's office where it is accessible to principal and teachers. It should show where the pupil is each period of the day, the activity engaged in, and the instructor in charge. Where the adviser or home-room system is used, the adviser or home-room teacher may well be made responsible for having the pupils in his advisory group make corrections in their programs as changes occur. It is convenient for the adviser to have a duplicate copy of each pupil's program. The enrollment card may be made to serve this purpose. A copy of the daily schedule of the school should also be

PROGRAM OF JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

(Six teachers including principal)

Period	Teacher	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
1	A	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
	B	Algebra 3 [1]	Algebra 3	Algebra 3	Algebra 3	Algebra 3
	C	American History *or* Economics 6, 5	American History *or* Economics 6, 5	American History *or* Economics 6, 5	American History *or* Economics 6, 5	American History *or* Economics 6, 5
	D	English 1	English 1 (30 min.) Music (30 min.)	English 1	English 1 (30 min.) Music (30 min.)	English 1
	E	Social Science 2	Prevocational Agriculture 2	Social Science 2	Prevocational Agriculture 2	Social Science 2
	F	Biology 4	Biology 4	Biology 4	Biology 4	Biology 4
2	A	General Mathematics 2	General Mathematics 2	General Mathematics 2	General Mathematics 2	General Mathematics 2
	B	Physics *or* Chemistry 6, 5	Physics *or* Chemistry 6, 5	Physics *or* Chemistry 6, 5	Physics *or* Chemistry 6, 5	Physics *or* Chemistry 6, 5
	C	Foreign Language 4, 3	Foreign Language 4, 3	Foreign Language 4, 3	Foreign Language 4, 3	Foreign Language 4, 3
	D	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
	E	Agriculture 3, 4	Agriculture 3, 4	Agriculture 3, 4	Agriculture 3, 4	Agriculture 3, 4
	F	Home-making 3, 4	Home-making 3, 4	Home-making 3, 4	Home-making 3, 4	Home-making 3, 4

[1] The number given after each subject represents the year in which the subject is taken beginning with the first year in junior high school as number 1.

PROGRAM OF JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL—(*Continued*)

Period	Teacher	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
3	A	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
	B	Science 1	Science 1	Science 1	Science 1	Assembly (30 min.)
	C	Modern History *or* World History 4	Modern History *or* World History 4	Modern History *or* World History 4	Modern History *or* World History 4	
	D	English 6, 5	English 6, 5	English 6, 5	English 6, 5	Senior High School Chorus (30 min.)
	E	Agriculture 3, 4	Shop 2	Agriculture 3, 4	Shop 2	
	F	Home-making 3, 4	Domestic Economy 2	Home-making 3, 4	Domestic Economy 2	
		NOON RECESS				
4	A	General Mathematics 1	General Mathematics 1	General Mathematics 1	General Mathematics 1	General Mathematics 1
	B	Science 2	Science 2	Science 2	Drawing 2	Science 2
	C	Foreign Language 4, 5 (45 min.)	Foreign Language 4, 5 (45 min.)	Foreign Language 4, 5	Foreign Language 4, 5 (45 min.)	Foreign Language 4, 5 (45 min.)
	D	English 3 (45 min.)	English 3 (45 min.)	English 3	English 3 (45 min.)	English 3 (45 min.)
	E	.....	Health Education (boys) 3, 4, 5, 6 (15 min.)	.....	.....	Health Education (boys) 3, 4, 5, 6 (15 min.)
	F	Health Education (girls) 3, 4, 5, 6 (15 min.)[a]	.....	.....	Health Education (girls) 3, 4, 5, 6 (15 min.)	.....

[a] In years 3 to 6 pupils receive each week two thirty-minute periods for Health Education extending over parts of the fourth and fifth periods of the day.

PROGRAM OF JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL—(*Continued*)

Period	Teacher	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
5	A	Plane Geometry 4 (45 min.)	Plane Geometry 4 (45 min.)	Plane Geometry 4	Plane Geometry 4 (45 min.)	Plane Geometry 4 (45 min.)
	B	Science 3 (45 min.)	Science 3 (45 min.)	Science 3	Science 3 (45 min.)	Science 3 (45 min.)
	C	Social Science 1	Social Science 1	Social Science 1	Drawing 1	Social Science 1
	D	English 2	English 2 (30 min.) Music 2 (30 min.)	English 2	English 2 (30 min.) Music 2 (30 min.)	English 2
	E	Agriculture 5, 6	Agriculture 5, 6 (45 min.) Health Education (15 min.)	Agriculture 5, 6	Agriculture 5, 6	Agriculture 5, 6 (45 min.) Health Education (15 min.)
	F	Health Education (15 min.) Home-making 5, 6 (45 min.)	Home-making 5, 6	Home-making 5, 6	Health Education (15 min.) Home-making 5, 6 (45 min.)	Home-making 5, 6
6	A	Health Education 1, 2 (boys)	.....	Health Education 1, 2 (boys)	.....	Extraclass Activities and Junior Chorus
	B	.....	Health Education 1, 2 (girls)	.....	Health Education 1, 2 (girls)	
	C	U. S. History and Civics 3	U. S. History and Civics 3	U. S. History and Civics 3	U. S. History and Civics 3	
	D	English 4	English 4	English 4	English 4	
	E	Agriculture 5, 6	Shop 1	Agriculture 5, 6	Shop 1	
	F	Home-making 5, 6	Domestic Economy 1	Home-making 5, 6	Domestic Economy 1	

posted in some convenient place where it may be referred to by teachers and pupils when needed.

The problem of transportation.—In centralized schools where pupils are transported to and from the school, the organization of pupil transportation is a problem requiring careful consideration. All possible care should be taken to make transportation safe, comfortable, and efficient. This requires that the principal have full control over drivers, routes, etc. Each route should be carefully plotted so that all pupils are reached with the minimum amount of travel for each conveyance. A definite time schedule should be prepared for each driver who should report daily to the principal. The following is a driver's daily report used by the principal of a large centralized school at Renville, Minnesota, where both elementary and high-school pupils are transported.

DRIVER'S DAILY REPORT

ROUTE No. .... Week Ending..... 192..

	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thurs.	Fri.
1. Time of first stop in morning..					
2. Time of arrival at school building					
3. Time of departing from school building					
4. Time of last stop in evening....					
5. No. of times driver had to wait for children					
6. No. of times children became disorderly					
7. No. of foot warmers used.....					
8. No of pupils carried: Morning					
Evening					
9. Names of pupils late to meet wagon					
10. Trips made by other than regular driver (give name and day)					

ILLUSTRATIVE PROGRAM OF ALTERNATION FOR SMALL FOUR-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL

Subject	ACADEMIC								APPLIED ARTS							
	1928-29, 1930-31, etc.				1929-30, 1931-32, etc.				1928-29, 1930-31, etc.				1929-30, 1931-32, etc.			
	Year				Year				Year				Year			
	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV	I	II	III	IV
English 1	x				x				x				x			
English 2		x				x				x				x		
English 3			x					x			x					x
English 4				x			x					x			x	
Civics	x				x				x				x			
General History		x				x				x				x		
American History			x					x			x					x
Economics and Government				x			x					x			x	
General Science	x				x					x				x		
Biology			x					x			x					x
Physics				x			x					x			x	
Foreign Language 1	x					x										
Foreign Language 2		x					x									
Algebra			x			x										
Geometry				x			x									
General Mathematics									x				x			
Home Economics 1		x			x					x			x			

Agriculture 1		x			x					x				x				
Home Economics 2	x					x			x						x			
Agriculture 2	x					x			x						x			
Home Economics 3																		
Agriculture 3												x				x		
Home Economics 4												x				x		
Agriculture 4											x						x	
											x						x	

ALTERNATIONS

English 3	*with* English 4
American History	*with* Economics and Government
Biology	*with* Physics
Foreign Language 1	*with* Foreign Language 2
Algebra	*with* Geometry
Home Economics 1	*with* Home economics 2
Agriculture 1	*with* Agriculture 2
Home Economics 3	*with* Home Economics 4
Agriculture 3	*with* Agriculture 4

SUGGESTED DAILY SCHEDULE FOR SMALL FOUR-YEAR HIGH SCHOOL

Period	Teacher	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
1	A	U. S. History *or* Economics and Government	U. S. History *or* Economics and Government	U. S. History *or* Economics and Government	U. S. History *or* Economics and Government	U. S. History *or* Economics and Government
	B	Home Economics 1 *or* 2	Home Economics 1 *or* 2	Home Economics 1 *or* 2	Home Economics 1 *or* 2	Home Economics 1 *or* 2
	C	Agriculture 1 *or* 2	Agriculture 1 *or* 2	Agriculture 1 *or* 2	Agriculture 1 *or* 2	Agriculture 1 *or* 2
2	A	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
	B	Home Economics 3 *or* 4	Home Economics 1 *or* 2	Home Economics 3 *or* 4	Home Economics 1 *or* 2	.....
	C	Agriculture 3 *or* 4	Agriculture 1 *or* 2	Agriculture 3 *or* 4	Agriculture 1 *or* 2	.....
3	A	Foreign Language 1 *or* 2	Foreign Language 1 *or* 2	Foreign Language 1 *or* 2	Foreign Language 1 *or* 2	Foreign Language 1 *or* 2
	B	Home Economics 3 *or* 4	Home Economics 3 *or* 4	Home Economics 3 *or* 4	Home Economics 3 *or* 4	Home Economics 3 *or* 4
	C	Agriculture 3 *or* 4	Agriculture 3 *or* 4	Agriculture 3 *or* 4	Agriculture 3 *or* 4	Agriculture 3 *or* 4

4	A	Algebra *or* Geometry	Algebra *or* Geometry	Algebra *or* Geometry	Algebra *or* Geometry	Algebra *or* Geometry
	B	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
	C	General Science	General Science	General Science	General Science	General Science
5	A	General Mathematics	General Mathematics	General Mathematics	General Mathematics	General Mathematics
	B	English 3 *or* 4	English 3 *or* 4	English 3 *or* 4	English 3 *or* 4	English 3 *or* 4
	C	.....	.....	.....	.....	.....
6	A	Civics	Civics	Civics	Civics	Civics
	B	English 2	English 2	English 2	English 2	English 2
	C	Biology *or* Physics	Biology *or* Physics	Biology *or* Physics	Biology *or* Physics	Biology *or* Physics
7	A	General History	General History	General History	General History	General History
	B	English 1	English 1	English 1	English 1	English 1
	C	.....	Biology *or* Physics	.....	Biology *or* Physics	.....

Care should be taken that the social conduct of pupils en route is in every respect desirable. This requires that the driver have definite control over the pupils. Many principals develop pupil coöperation by having a pupil monitor for each conveyance who reports to the principal each morning. In some schools the monitor or another pupil acts as safety officer. His responsibility is to pilot the conveyance over all railroad and trolley crossings. Where pupils use train or trolley in attending high school the principal should have on file the names of all such pupils and their travel schedule.

The management of the lunch period.—The management of the lunch period is a problem in all high schools where pupils from a distance attend and particularly where the school is not equipped to serve school lunches. It is desirable in such cases that a room or rooms be specially designated for lunch rooms. Some high schools have a pupil committee for supervising the lunch rooms. In other schools the members of the faculty take turns in supervising the lunch period for a week at a time. Whatever method is used, careful supervision is essential, and it is usually desirable that a teacher be in the building during the lunch hour.

Problems

1. What are the principles of good high-school organization?
2. Make an outline indicating the information the high-school principal should possess before planning the organization of his school.
3. In what ways should the teachers coöperate with the principal in the administrative problems of the high school?
4. For a particular high school outline in some detail the administrative duties that should be delegated to the members of the teaching staff.
5. Develop for a small high school a scheme of alternation of subjects to give the greatest offering of subjects and at the same time an equable teaching load.

6. Outline a plan for building a daily schedule for a small high school.

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CHAPTER XII

PUPIL GUIDANCE

Guidance a major function of the secondary school.—Pupil guidance is one of the major responsibilities of the secondary school. Recognition of individual differences in ability, aptitudes, and interests and differentiation in studies and curriculums to meet those differences require that the school give the pupil opportunities for choice among studies and curriculums. Choice on the part of the pupil implies guidance in order that he may select the types of subjects that will have the greatest values for him and that will give a desirable degree of continuity to his educational experiences.

Freedom of vocational choice in a democracy.—An important feature of a democratic form of society is freedom in the choice of one's vocation. That an individual should select a vocation in which and through which he has an opportunity for the fullest realization of his powers and interests is as important as that through his vocational activity he should serve society. In so far as possible the individual should enter a vocation the demands of which are in harmony both with his capacity for economic or social service and his aptitudes and interests. In modern society vocations have become so numerous and specialized and the relationships so complex that youth cannot unaided make an intelligent choice. Upon the secondary school especially rests the responsibility of giving its pupils a chance to explore, discover, and test their capacities, aptitudes, and interests, not only as a basis for determining the most valuable educational paths to be pursued, but

preparatory to any decision as to the occupation to be followed. It is also responsible for giving each pupil some definite acquaintance with occupations, the opportunities they offer for economic independence and service, their requirements, the present and probable future needs in the various occupational fields, and the modes of life implied in their pursuit.

The major aspects of guidance.—Pupil guidance has two major aspects in the secondary school, the educational and the vocational. The former is concerned with the pupil's adjustment with respect to his curricular and general extra-class activities and may be subdivided into curricular, avocational and recreational, and moral and social guidance. The latter is concerned with the pupil's choice either tentatively or finally of a vocation. The different aspects of guidance are not entirely distinct but frequently overlap and must throughout be carried on in close relationship with one another.

Some objectives of guidance.—In a broad way the objectives of guidance may be conceived of as:

1. To discover and make record of the abilities, needs, interests, and accomplishments of pupils.
2. To help the pupil to an understanding and appreciation of his capacities and the opportunities for their development through meeting with many and varied educative situations with intimate bearing upon life.
3. To counsel and advise pupils in their choice of studies, curriculums, and other educational activities as opportunity or necessity for choice arises.
4. To impress upon pupils an appreciation of the fact that success depends primarily upon accomplishment—the forming of habits of success in the broad sense.
5. To guide the pupil in the acquiring of a knowledge of the opportunities for vocational service through the study of occupations, their requirements and inducements.
6. To give pupils an understanding and appreciation of the meaning, characteristics, importance, and relationships of vocations and their place in human affairs.

7. To help the school in the adaptation of its various activities to meet the needs of its pupil population.

The place of pupil diagnosis in guidance.—Educational guidance to be effective must be based upon a diagnosis of the pupil's capacities, aptitudes, interests, and life purposes so far as these are known. No single instrument or measure should be depended upon to furnish the data for this analysis. Intelligence tests are helpful as one means of diagnosis but should not be the sole criterion. Cumulative records of the pupil's school work, of his extraclass activities, of his interests as reflected in his voluntary home and school enterprises, and of his life purposes as far as expressed are essential as a basis for guidance. The estimates of his instructors as to abilities and aptitudes shown, likes and dislikes in studies, habits of work, perseverance, and seriousness of purpose should receive attention. The pupil's health record, including any physical assets or handicaps, should also be given due weight in every diagnosis made. Of special importance is the information gained through try-out and prevocational courses.

The program of studies relative to guidance.—An essential prerequisite to any successful plan of pupil guidance is a program of studies sufficient in range and variety to give pupils opportunity to try themselves out, to discover abilities, aptitudes, and interests, and to pursue lines of study adapted to their needs as determined. Examples of programs suitable for small junior high schools and possessing in greater or less degree the characteristics to be desired are the suggested programs in Chapter VIII and those in Appendix II. All subjects also should be so organized and taught as to have the closest relation possible with human affairs. "In the first place, instruction in every subject taught at school should be accompanied to the utmost extent possible by concrete illustration and

fresh, current exemplification. Real shop problems should be used to illustrate the theoretical principles of geometry, mechanics, chemistry, and physics. This is also applicable in languages, literature, and history."[1]

The aim of guidance.—The aim of educational guidance is not only to help each pupil to engage in the studies that will be of greatest values to him and to society but to assist him to work under conditions conducive to success. In large secondary schools pupils are often grouped in classes according to ability, the rate of progress and the instructional materials used being in each case adapted to the class. In small schools sectioning according to ability is usually impracticable. Differentiation must then be made for pupils of differing abilities within the same class. Each pupil should be given so far as possible the opportunity to proceed at his optimum rate and according to standards of achievement suited to his powers. Means of meeting these differences in ability in small high schools are discussed in Chapter XIII.

In both educational and vocational guidance, too much emphasis cannot be placed upon the desirability of freedom of choice on the part of the pupil. Guidance should consist in giving the pupil assistance through help in understanding himself, the nature and purposes of the various school studies and activities, and in putting him in possession of information about occupational life. Its function should never be conceived of as that of assigning a pupil arbitrarily to certain studies, refusing him permission to try out certain subjects, or marking out for him arbitrarily a certain educational or occupational path. All the counsellor should do is to advise on the basis of all the factual information available, leaving to the pupil the final

[1] C. W. Eliot, "The Value During Education of the Life-Career Motive," *Proceedings* of the National Education Association (1910); Meyer Bloomfield, *Readings in Vocational Guidance* (Ginn, 1915), pp. 1-18.

responsibility for deciding his course. No pupil should be denied a reasonable chance to try out any subject he desires to study whenever he reaches the stage where that subject is offered. No restriction should be placed upon his freedom of vocational choice or of entering upon whatever appropriate preparatory training the school affords, except as he has proven himself incapable of meeting the legitimate standards of work. A democratic system of secondary education must leave to the individual pupil freedom of choice as to both occupation and curriculum to be pursued, giving so far as possible equal opportunities for making intelligent elections. Not all pupils should be expected to make one choice and hold to that choice forever. Readjustment in the light of new choices carefully considered should be reasonably easy and should entail the minimum of loss in time and effort on the part of the pupil.

Educational guidance resources.—As resources of educational guidance the school has the intelligence or general ability tests, cumulative pupil records, the teachers, parents, the program of studies, the library, extraclass activities, and the pupil's physical and human environment as represented by the community. By means of the intelligence test, it can get an approximation of the pupil's intelligence level. These results, when supplemented by cumulative records, furnish a basis for forecasting the probable success of the pupil in secondary-school work and the demands he can reasonably be expected to meet successfully. By example and the influence wielded through the various personal contacts with pupils in the classroom, in extraclass activities, and in general school life, the teacher can give in large measure moral and social guidance. In the program of studies should be available the principal means of discovering and testing powers, aptitudes, and interests, and their development. The library, extraclass activities, and the natural resources and activities of the

home and the community should be used to supplement the resources supplied directly by the school.

Vocational guidance resources.—For vocational guidance the school has as resources whatever knowledge as to the abilities, aptitudes, and interests of its pupils it has gained through its educational guidance program. In the program of studies it has the subjects that are direct avenues into vocations or that contain elements bearing upon occupational activities. In addition, there are the accessible occupations of the community and regions adjacent and all available resources of vicarious vocational information, as persons engaged in vocations, readings, products, and pictures.

Every secondary school should afford every pupil as rich an opportunity for self-discovery as possible, with respect both to his vocation and to his educational pursuits. Especially should this be true of the high school in the country or village where the community is frequently lacking in opportunities for certain types of experience. In no case should the school attempt to turn its pupils back into the modes of life vocational or otherwise from which they have come by isolating them from contacts giving a broader perspective of life than the community affords. "The fact that a child is born on the farm is not at all an indication that he can in largest measure realize his birthright and serve his fellows by remaining on the farm. Any system of education designed to limit resources of self-discovery is restrictive both of the rights of the child and of the progress of society."[2]

In general, rural and village communities have fewer resources for vocational guidance than the city. Opportunities for vocational understanding and experience, however, are usually richer in comparison with the number of

[2] T. H. Eaton, "Teaching for the Sake of Vocational Choice in Rural Communities," *School Review*, Vol. 31 (March, 1923), pp. 191-203.

resources available than they are in the urban community. Vocations are less specialized in country and village, less segregated. They are likely to overlap more with respect to common elements and "characteristic life modes." "The proportion of vocations of the entrepreneurial type, such as call for the assumption of risk, the responsibility of ownership, and the accumulation of capital by the worker, is greater"[3] in the country than in the city.

Vocational guidance resources in a particular community.—An unpublished survey of the vocational guidance resources for boys of a small village high school by Elmer C. Nash[4] showed that thirty-two different vocations were represented within the patronage area of the school. Agriculture, the predominant vocation of the community was represented by four major types: general farming, stock-raising, dairying, and vegetable farming. Within a radius of approximately ten miles and easily accessible from the school were represented eighty-eight types of occupations, or 87 per cent of the types engaged in by the men of New York State as shown by the United States Census of 1920. While not all rural and village school communities throughout the country would have within reach as diversified resources for vocational guidance as the example given, a survey would undoubtedly show in most cases a fairly broad sampling of occupational types that could be utilized by the school either for pupil participation or observation.

The necessity of organization for guidance.—To give pupils adequate guidance the school must be organized to that end and have a definite system for effecting guidance. The curriculum organization should be such as to permit

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[3] T. H. Eaton, *loc. cit.*

[4] Elmer C. Nash, "A Study of the Resources for the Vocational Guidance of the Boys of Dryden School Community," Master's Thesis, Cornell University, 1924.

of differentiation among pupils, first through try-out [5] and discovery courses, and later through distinct curriculums designed to meet the needs of significant pupil groups.

In the smaller schools where the number of curriculums that can be offered is very limited, considerable opportunity should be permitted for choice within each curriculum. In addition to the vocational information to be gained through prevocational courses and other curriculum elements, opportunity for an understanding of occupations should be afforded through a course in the study of occupations or through directed library reading.[6] So far as possible, pupils interested in occupations should be given a chance actually to participate in occupational activities through vocational projects carried on as a part of their school work or as workers under school supervision in an occupation where they have a chance to come in direct contact with several different phases of the work. Facilities should be available for observation of representative occupations in the community and accessible regions adjacent to it. These observations should be carefully directed so that the pupils will take note of the things of significance. A well-organized and varied program of extraclass activities should supplement the opportunities for discovering and testing abilities, aptitudes, and interests afforded by the program of studies. And finally, the organization of the school should include machinery for the work of testing pupils, keeping a system of cumulative records,

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[5] Examples of prevocational courses in agriculture are given by E. E. Windes in Rural School Leaflet No. 26 (August, 1924). "Types of Courses of Study in Agriculture," United States Bureau of Education, Washington, D. C. (for an abstract *see* Appendix I).

[6] Some of the books suitable for the study of occupations are: J. L. Barnard, *Getting a Living* (Franklin, 1921); F. M. and Imogene Giles, *Vocational Civics* (Macmillan, 1919); Gowin, Wheatley, and Brewer, *Occupations* (Ginn, 1923); Ziegler and Jaquette, *Choosing an Occupation* (Winston, 1924); and Miriam Leuck, *Fields of Work for Women* (D. Appleton, 1926).

the collecting of vocational information, and educational and vocational counseling.

Adaptation of the guidance program to the community.—In the administration of a program of guidance in small high schools, local conditions will determine in part the agencies to be employed. The organization of secondary education under the plan of junior- and senior-high-school units probably gives the most favorable situation for carrying out an effective program. The junior-high-school period is especially suitable for guidance both because of the age and maturity of the pupils and because of the stage in education represented, although definite provision for guidance should undoubtedly be made also in the senior high school and the junior college. The entire organization of the junior high school should be with reference to guidance as a major function.

The junior-high-school curriculum as a means of guidance.—The curriculum of the junior high school throughout should be developed to give broad and intimate contacts with modern activities, especially with those of the community. It should afford many opportunities for exploring, testing, and developing interests, aptitudes, and abilities through try-out and prevocational courses. Pupils should not be required to elect definite curriculums but rather through exploration and counsel should be brought to the position where they can intelligently choose a curriculum suited to their needs in the last year of the junior high school or in the senior high school. In addition to the prevocational courses offered in the regular school program, projects carried on under junior extension or boys and girls club work should be utilized as a definite phase of the program promoting the discovery and testing of abilities, aptitudes, and interests.

The study of occupations in the junior high school.—In the junior high school, preferably in the second year, pupils should be given special opportunity to study sig-

nificant occupations through observation, reading, pictures, etc. This study should not be limited to local types but should ordinarily start with occupations of the community in which the pupils are interested. It should be based upon factual information kept up to date. Individual pupils should be encouraged to give special attention to those occupations in which they are especially interested. The study of occupations should not be restricted to any group or kind of occupations but should represent all major types. It is particularly desirable in rural and village communities that children receive as broad an understanding of vocational activities and the modes of life pertinent to their pursuit as possible. Many children gain false impressions of city life. They are acquainted only with its glamour and the pictures of exceptional success contained in popular magazines. They need to come into possession of accurate information as to actual living conditions of the various vocational groups in the city as well as of those of country and village. The aim of the study of occupations should be to give pupils an intimate acquaintance with specific occupations representative of the various types, and to lead pupils to a broad understanding of the place and importance of vocational pursuits in society. Occupational study [7] should include among other things the nature of occupations, their advantages and disadvantages, the opportunities they offer as life callings, qualities making for success, training required or desirable and how it may be obtained, standards of living, and opportunities for service. Wherever it is possible the study of occupations should be directed by some one who knows intimately at least some occupations and who comes directly in touch with occupational life.[8]

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[7] *See* Appendix IV.

[8] Principals planning to organize a system of guidance for their schools will undoubtedly find many helpful suggestions in General

Guidance in the four-year high school.—In communities with the four-year high school, special attention should be given to guidance in the first year. This may be accomplished by giving pupils an opportunity to enter discovery and try-out courses during that year and by delaying the necessity for choosing a definite curriculum until at least the second year. All the work in the first year should be closely related to modern life. Occupational study should be a part of the first year's work. During this year especially definite machinery for the discovery and testing of abilities, aptitudes, and interests and for the giving of personal guidance should be in operation.

Guidance in the senior high school and junior college.—Guidance cannot stop with the junior-high-school period. It should continue to function in the senior high school and in the junior college. Many pupils will not as yet have found themselves and will need guidance with reference both to vocational choice and to the educational course they should pursue. During the senior-high-school period many will leave school to enter, either temporarily or permanently, some form of occupational activity, either as part-time or as full-time workers. In making their adjustments they should receive help. In some cases this will be a matter of opportunities for further training for the occupations in which they are engaged. In other instances it will be a question during the temporary following of one occupation of preparing the individual for another in which he plans ultimately to engage.

Vocational placement.—Where the facilities of the school make possible, pupils should be given assistance in placing themselves in a vocation where the conditions are favorable for growth, and they should be supervised in their work to the end of helping them to make adjustments and of directing them in further training. The senior

Bulletin on Guidance, Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, Harrisburg, Pa. (1925).

high school should offer the boys and girls of the community who are working advantages under guidance of part-time and continuation work. This part-time and continuation work should make possible for the young workers further training in the major occupations of the community. It should also give to those who desire opportunity to continue their liberal education or to prepare for entrance to higher institutions of learning.

Placing responsibility for guidance.—There should be in each school some person definitely responsible for organizing and coördinating the various elements in the guidance program. This person should have general charge of the testing in the school, the establishing and maintaining of an efficient system of cumulative pupil records, and the collecting and filing of occupational and other information needed in the different phases of guidance. To him should be referred individual cases representing special difficulties of adjustment. He should have general oversight of the guidance work of the various teachers and through individual conferences and staff meetings develop an understanding of guidance and its importance, the methods and means to be employed, and the ends to be sought. All persons responsible for guidance should know, so far as these may be determined, the actual values of the different studies in the school's program for different groups of pupils. Under the present organization of secondary schools in rural and village communities the principal or some member of the staff will ordinarily need to assume the responsibility for directing the guidance work of the school.

A large proportion of the direct responsibility for educational guidance will ordinarily fall upon the pupil advisers. In the junior high school this will be the home-room teacher and the adviser of each extraclass activity. In the senior high school the advisory organization is more variable, but whatever it is in any particular school, each

pupil should be in some group definitely under the advisership of a member of the faculty. Vocational guidance through participation, observation, reading relative to occupations, etc., should devolve directly upon some one acquainted with occupations. In the small school, where a vocational counsellor is usually not available, the instructors in the prevocational and vocational courses should probably have charge of this work. There must be, however, close coöperation and harmony relative to each pupil with respect to educational and vocational counseling.

Suggestions relative to guidance in the small school.—To develop a program of vocational guidance in rural and village schools that will meet adequately the guidance needs of the adolescent boys and girls of those communities will ultimately require, it would seem, a more extensive and intensive organization than can be effected in the average rural or village high school. It will require facilities for collecting and giving vocational information, occupational participation, occupational observation, and the placement and supervision of young workers beyond the means of the local school to provide. It will demand the services of a person well trained in vocational counseling, devoting full time to guidance work. Such a program can be developed only by a group of high schools coöperating.

Under one of the plans previously suggested, where a number of junior high schools are grouped about and are contributory to a central senior high school, or where a group of high schools are under one supervisory officer, it would be practicable to employ one vocational counsellor for all the schools. Any group of neighboring schools, in fact, could have in common such a person's services. This person would be in general charge of all vocational guidance work in the group of schools. He would collect and keep up to date occupational information; counsel with individual pupils with reference to their vocational choice; arrange for occupational participation, in addition to that

afforded through the project activities in prevocational, junior extension, and vocational courses; direct the work of placement and employment supervision; arrange and direct the study of occupations through regular courses, readings, pictures, and other available means. He might arrange for a program of vocational talks in the different schools by competent persons who are engaged in various occupations and have direction of occupational observations. As a part of his duties, also, he might well conduct a bureau for helping pupils who desire employment to find work suited to their abilities and interests and where working conditions are desirable. Only by some plan of coöperation such as has been suggested can vocational guidance be given the attention that its importance demands it should have in rural and village communities.

Problems

1. What are the characteristics of present-day life and of secondary education that have made educational and vocational guidance of major importance in the high school?
2. Make a detailed analysis of the guidance needs of the pupils of a particular junior or senior high school and indicate the problems they offer.
3. Make a survey of the guidance resources in a particular high school and its community.
4. In what ways in a small high school might the pupils be aided in making their educational adjustments?
5. Make a careful study of some high-school subject relative to its possible guidance values.
6. Outline in some detail a plan of educational and vocational guidance for a small high school or group of neighboring schools.

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CHAPTER XIII

THE PROBLEM OF INDIVIDUAL DIFFERENCES IN ABILITY

The problem of recognizing individual differences.—Viewed from any angle the recognition of individual differences in the small secondary school presents problems difficult of solution. In part the solution may be found through a program of studies organized into curriculums designed to meet the variant needs of the major groups of pupils. The program of extraclass activities offers further means of solving the problem. In most part, however, curriculums and extraclass activities give recognition to differences in the interests, aptitudes, and purposes of pupils only. They do not in any adequate degree provide for the differences in ability among the pupils in general or among the pupils within the various groups. Educational psychology shows clearly, however, the magnitude of these differences even in selected groups and their importance relative to the education of each individual. To meet them is a problem involving subject-matter selection, rate of learning, standards, and method.

Emphasis in the past upon uniformity.—In recent years a great deal of attention has been given to the adjustment of school work to pupils of varying abilities. In secondary schools considerable progress has been made, especially in large junior high schools, through the classification of pupils into ability groups. To a lesser extent ability grouping has been practiced in large senior high schools. In small secondary schools very little has been done in adjusting the work to pupils of different native abilities. Subject matter, methods, and standards have in a large meas-

ure been uniform for all pupils pursuing any given subject. Practically no differentiation in either subject matter or standards has been made with reference to the needs of pupils pursuing different curriculums except in the strictly vocational studies. Variability in rate of learning, and in ability to achieve, has received but little recognition. As a result the slow pupil and the pupil of limited capacity have tended to fail and in time to be eliminated from the school. The superior pupil too frequently has not been stimulated according to his ability and has as a consequence often achieved but mediocre results. The pupil of average ability, or a little above, has followed the even tenor of his way, the favored individual. Throughout, the small secondary school has overemphasized the likenesses among its pupils and has neglected the important differences in ability.

The need of increased attention to differences in ability.—If the small high school, junior or senior, is to meet the needs of all pupils of secondary-school age, it must not only provide for differentiation through curriculums and extraclass activities but for differences in ability within groups. It must recognize more than it has in the past that education is primarily a matter of individual development even though instruction under class organization is a matter of dealing with groups. Better means must be employed of reaching the individual through some attention to individual instruction. Every pupil is a problem to be solved in terms of his potentialities for growth toward specific goals. Pupils are not to be regarded as jugs capable of holding a standard amount of learning in general and to be filled by pouring in that amount through a regulation funnel. Such a procedure can only result in many remaining partially filled, while others are hopelessly shattered by undue pressure in the attempt to adjust the standard cork. Each pupil according to his ability should be stimulated to attain his maximum in the

way of achievement, whatever that may be, and at the optimum rate.

What can the small secondary school do?—What can be done in the small secondary school with its many limitations in recognizing differences in ability? No single answer can be given to this question. In many respects the answer will differ for different schools. Practice in the small schools supplies no definite data upon which to build guiding principles for those administering secondary education in small communities. There are, however, certain practices, usually in the large high schools, some or all of which are practicable in the small school. Certain of these practices will be considered in the following discussion.

Pupil diagnosis basic to adjustment to individual needs.—Any sound scheme of adjustment of work to individual ability must be based upon pupil diagnosis. This involves the use of standardized tests as well as the cumulative records of the pupil's regular school work and outside activities. The ability tests should include both those designed to measure general intelligence and those measuring special abilities. The results of these tests give a basis for fairly reliable approximations of the natural ability the pupil possesses for doing school work. They also help to determine at any time the extent to which the pupil is utilizing his native powers in the performance of his school tasks. A group of these tests should be given all pupils entering the junior high school and at least once again at the beginning of the first year in the senior high school. Van Denburg's book, *The Junior High School Idea,* contains an excellent practical discussion on the giving and use of ability tests in an actual junior-high-school situation.

Ordinarily, because of limitations in time and assistance available, only group tests can be used in the small school. Except for special cases they are sufficient for practical purposes. While it should be recognized that the results

will not furnish the basis for fine distinctions in the ranking of individual pupils, they will indicate with a considerable degree of accuracy whether the individual pupil possesses high or low native ability. They will show whether he is below or above the average of the group and approximately how much. If possible, in problematic cases where there is wide variation between ability as indicated by the group tests on the one hand and actual school achievement on the other, special tests should be given as a check upon the results of the group tests. Search should also be made for other factors that might have an influence upon the character of the pupil's school activities.

Many factors influence success in school work.—Principals and teachers need to keep in mind at all times that native ability is not the only factor determining success in school work. They need also to be mindful of the fact that ability tests do not give measures of perseverance or industry. Often pupils achieve more than could be forecast from any measures of ability available, due probably to unusual perseverance or powers of application. Undoubtedly these are phases of native ability not generally shown as yet in the results of ability tests. Previous school records must be correlated with the results of ability tests in adjusting the work of the school to individual pupils. An analytical examination of the pupil's school record over a period of one or more years should give considerable insight into the character of his work and the possibilities ahead. Teachers' judgments should also be given consideration. Other factors that need to be taken into account are the pupil's study habits, the conditions under which home work is done, and the duties the pupil has during out-of-school hours. All of these are important factors in determining success or failure in school.

Ability grouping.—In large secondary schools much use has been made of ability grouping. In some schools pupils are classified into as many as four or five groups on the

basis of the tabulated results of ability tests. Instruction is given to the groups separately, and subject matter, method, and rate of progress are adjusted to the needs of each group. Emphasis is placed upon the work to be done rather than upon the element of time taken to accomplish it. Each group progresses as rapidly as it can do the work, according to the standards determined upon for that particular group. Because of the limited number of pupils in any one year's work and limitations in teachers, etc., the forming of classes according to ability groups is usually impossible in the small secondary school. Hence, if it is to meet the needs of pupils of differing abilities, the adjustments must be made in other ways.

Differences in rate of progress to meet individual differences.—The standard requirement for the completion of a secondary-school course has been four years and under the junior-senior organization six years. Generally speaking, it may be said, particularly in small schools, that all pupils regardless of their length of stride have been compelled to adjust themselves to the standard gait. The superior pupil has been held in check and the pupil of inferior ability has been crowded to maintain a pace a little above the normal for the pupil of average ability. The psychology of individual differences shows conclusively, however, that there are in every school pupils who can accomplish in a given unit of time from two to five times as much work as some other pupils of the same year, and of an equal or higher standard of excellence. This indicates that pupils might well travel at very different rates, and that we have overemphasized the time element in the secondary-school course. The real essential is the amount of work accomplished with a desirable degree of excellence—the nature and number of educational experiences had by the pupil.

One way of recognizing differences in ability that can be easily carried out in the small secondary school is the

adjustment of the pupil's load according to his ability to achieve through increasing or decreasing the number of hours of work carried at any one time. It is probable that from 5 to 15 per cent of the pupils in any secondary school could complete a four-year course in three years or a six-year course in four and a half or five years with no decrease in the quality of work done. They can carry five credit-unit subjects as easily as the pupil of average ability carries four or the pupil in the lower fourth of the group carries three. There is some evidence to support the statement that the pupil of superior ability gains most from his high-school work when his load is sufficient to demand a degree of application near his maximum. Especially under the plan of uniform assignments, the common practice in small secondary schools, the pupil of superior ability, when carrying the same number of studies as the average pupil, tends to develop habits of idleness and inattention.

It is likewise probable that for a considerable number of pupils five years for completing a four-year course or seven for a six-year course would be more nearly in accord with their ability than the standard time. In many cases, if their load were adjusted from the beginning to their ability to carry, their chances for success in high school would be increased. The common practice at the present time of permitting a pupil who has failed in one or two subjects one semester to carry the regular program and in addition one of the subjects in which he failed is psychologically and pedagogically unsound. It is, so far as the pupil is concerned, courting disaster. It is only doubling his prospects of continued failure. It would appear much better to adjust his load to his probability of success.

Supervision of the pupil's program.—All adjustments resulting either in an increase or decrease in the number of studies carried by a pupil should be made under the guidance of the principal or of a faculty adviser. They

should be made with reference to the pupil's ability rating, cumulative scholarship record, and out-of-school duties. The health of the pupil should also be a determining factor. The ideal should be to have each and every pupil advance at his optimal rate as determined by native ability and the conditions under which he works. Pupils should be taught to look upon the secondary-school course in terms of things to be accomplished rather than in terms of the number of years or semesters to be spent. Care should be taken that no pupil loses a proper balance by neglecting to participate in the extraclass activities of the school.

Recognition of differences in ability through minimal essentials.—A second means of adjusting the work in the small secondary school is the arrangement of each course of study on the basis of minimal essentials. While the preceding plan is primarily an adjustment to rate of progress, this is primarily an adjustment in subject matter and standards. While it does not necessarily preclude the other, it is based upon the idea that the capable pupil should not only achieve a better quality of work than the less capable pupil, but that he should achieve more. In a sense the plan of minimal essentials is a differentiation in richness and standards for different ability groups. It is practicable under the conditions existing in the small school where each class contains all the pupils studying a subject. It requires a careful development of the course with reference to its objectives and the determination of the content regarded as essential to the realization of those objectives. This content becomes the minimal requirement for the satisfactory completion of the course, its elements to be mastered by all pupils with whatever degree of accuracy and thoroughness is deemed desirable or necessary. In addition to the minimal requirements the course should contain worth-while material definitely related to the objectives of the course, adapted to the abilities of those pupils who can accomplish more than is represented by the min-

imal essentials, and sufficient in amount, variety, and difficulty to afford the superior pupil ample opportunity and stimulation for the fullest utilization of his powers.

The essentials of the course, according to the subject, may consist of required topics to be developed, problems to be solved or considered, principles and processes to be mastered, readings to be done, translations to be made, compositions to be written, talks to be given orally, articles to be made, laboratory experiments to be performed, specimens to be collected, skills to be acquired, etc. The additional units from which pupils who have met the minimal requirements of any time unit, as a week, two weeks, or a month, may select further work, may be expressed as additional topics to be developed, problems to be solved or considered, readings to be done, reports to be made, compositions to be written, experiments to be performed, observations to be made, individual studies to be initiated and carried on subject to the approval of the instructor, etc.

The problem of credit under minimal-essentials plan.—The question may arise as to the basis of credit under the minimal-essentials plan. Any pupil who has done the minimum amount of work required, the essentials, according to a desirable standard, should be ready to advance regularly. He has accomplished the things in the course deemed essential. According to this plan the pupil doing the minimal amount of work at the lowest recognized standard would receive the lowest passing mark. The highest mark possible for a pupil accomplishing the minimum amount of work but with a high degree of excellence should be the mark representing average achievement. Increasing recognition through higher marks should be given according to the amount and excellence of work accomplished in addition to that necessary for meeting the minimal requirements. The highest mark should represent an amount and quality of achievement attainable

by only a relatively small percentage of the pupils in the class.

Work units under minimal-essentials plan.—The minimal-essentials plan of adjustment to ability can be operated most successfully where each fortnight's or month's work is organized into definite units with the specific objectives to be attained clearly stated. Each unit as suggested should be stated in terms of required topics, problems, readings, etc., and additional topics, problems, readings, etc. The final success of the plan will depend, as in all secondary-school teaching, upon the pupils' interest in the subject—their recognition of its worthwhileness.

A description of a modified form of the Dalton plan used in the high school at River Falls, Wisconsin, and with some features similar to the plan discussed above, is given by Superintendent H. C. Mason.[1] A quotation at some length will give the reader an idea of the main characteristics of the organization used.

> When the work of the school had been socialized to the point where the plan was working successfully for the upper half of most of the classes, a few teachers began to make assignments modeled somewhat after those described by Miller.[2] These consist of blocks or units of work, each sufficient for from one to six weeks. Each block or unit is subdivided into other blocks or units and a mark assigned to each division. Complete mastery is required in order to secure a mark in each unit. . . .
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> The first block of work in the assignment consists of the fundamental principles or the basic material of the assignment. The next block consists of simple problems or exercises applying these principles or basic facts. The third block may be a further application or consist of gathering more details. The upper blocks consist of assignments designed to develop the pupil's imagination, judgment, and ability to think for himself and, as Miller would say, "to create."

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[1] H. C. Mason, "A Modification of the Dalton Plan," *School Review*, Vol. 33 (December, 1925), pp. 781-786.

[2] Harry Lloyd Miller, *Directing Study* (Scribner, 1922), p. 144.

During the early days of the assignment the work is carried on as usual, with the exception that it is socialized as much as possible. When principles are being taught, it is believed that the developmental lesson with the teacher in the foreground is a "hold-over" from the old system which it is desirable to preserve. In this part of the work the old question-and-answer type of recitation can be effectively and economically used. When the block is finished, those who have mastered it go on, while those who have fallen short of complete mastery continue to work at it. The classes become classes in supervised study, each pupil moving at his own rate until the whole assignment is finished by the number of pupils who should finish it according to the usual distribution of intelligences.

The use of the project and problem in meeting individual differences.—The organization of each course of study partially or wholly in terms of projects and problems offers another means of adjustment to differences in ability. It also helps to meet individual differences in interests and purposes. While such organization may well be a part of either of the other plans suggested in this chapter, it needs to be considered separately for its own values.

The project has been variously defined. For the purposes of the present brief discussion it will be thought of as an activity or series of closely related activities directed toward the attainment of a clearly recognized end. Its essential characteristics are activity and purpose. Its desirable characteristics are: (1) the fact that it is carried to completion; (2) its natural setting; and (3) that it has individual and social significance. In its simplest form it may be the activity necessary in overcoming a single difficulty; in its complex form it may embrace many closely related activities necessary in the solution of a series of problems encountered in reaching a desired end or result.

The project-problem organization of subject matter has been most satisfactorily worked out in the secondary school in connection with vocational studies. It has also been the

basis upon which a great deal of the work in nonvocational courses in industrial and fine arts has been organized.

In the academic studies, particularly in small high schools, but little use has been made of either the problem or the project-problem organization of materials. While in the academic studies more difficulties are to be met with in effecting such an organization, these are due largely to the encyclopedic character of such studies at the present time and the lack of definite objectives to be attained. Any subject the content of which has been determined relative to its values in the realization of a group of major and specific educational objectives can be approached partially at least on the problem or the project-problem basis with beneficial results both in increased interest on the part of the pupils and in the elimination of nonessentials. In the various studies in natural science, social science, and English especially, there are wide opportunities for instruction through the problem and the project.

Through the problem or the project-problem both the interests and the abilities of different pupils may be recognized and yet all may work definitely in the direction of the objectives of the course. For the pupils of a class to gain skill in the use of language, for example, as an instrument of expression, it is not necessary for all to describe the same object or process. In fact, it is probable that each will make the most satisfactory progress when he uses language to describe to others something in which at the time he has special interest. Pupils may develop habits of reading and literary appreciation through many different channels and even through reading the same poem, novel, or essay but for different specific purposes. One pupil may acquire a certain desirable acquaintance with electricity in solving the problems confronting him in setting up a radio, while another may study the subject in connection with the installation of a Delco plant at his home.

Through the organization of part or all its work in the various studies in terms of projects and problems the small high school has a practicable means of adjusting its activities to pupils of differing abilities. For most small schools at the present time, in view of the relatively large number of inexperienced teachers, it would probably be safest to begin by organizing each study only in part in terms of problems or project-problems and gradually adding other parts. Ultimately the aim might well be to place all subjects on the problem basis with the use of projects to the extent that the character of the subject makes expedient. Even a partial organization in this direction should result in a type of school work vastly more vital than ordinarily done at the present time.

Supervised study as a method of recognizing differences in ability.—The use of supervised or directed study is one of the practicable ways in which the small high school can recognize individual differences in ability. The common practice in the past has been to use the class period as a recitation, a *re-citing* of things learned by the pupil during study either at home or in a general study room. The results have often been discouraging. Generally all pupils were given the same things to do. Little or no consideration was given to the different rates at which pupils were able to accomplish the tasks assigned. Almost nothing was known definitely as to the methods employed by the pupil in his study. The only measure was in the results attained. The only guidance the pupil received in his study was ordinarily limited to what he got from a brief assignment or from such hints as were given him by the teacher in charge of the study room who often knew less about the problem than he did himself. Usually both the assignment and the study-room hints yielded him little definite assistance when needed.

Emphasis upon the learning process.—Under the plan of supervised study the emphasis in the class period is

put not upon the reciting of what has already been supposedly learned but upon the study of advanced work under the direct supervision and guidance of the instructor of the subject. It is an interpretation of the purpose of the classroom different from that of the recitation in which pupils and teachers devoted the time to going over materials prepared outside of class. It is based upon the principle that the most important phase of learning is the doing, the performing of tasks. It recognizes that the place where the learner needs help is in meeting new situations and that the primary function of the teacher is that of director and guide at this critical stage.

Supervised study and length of class period.—To use supervised study most effectively, a class period of at least sixty minutes is desirable. It may be employed fairly successfully, however, where the class comes together for a shorter time. The class period should in general have three major parts: the recitation or class discussion, the assignment, and the study period. The organization should be flexible rather than fixed so that the relative proportion of time devoted to each aspect may vary as occasion warrants. Sometimes it may be desirable to use practically the entire period for the assignment, or for study. At other times the major portion of the class hour may be most advantageously given over to class discussion and review.

Organization of work units desirable for supervised study.—In carrying out supervised study each course should be organized in work units the nature and scope of which are adapted to the maturity and needs of the pupils. Often these units will include all that a class can accomplish in several days or a week. These work units should pertain to the attainment of certain definite objectives. The assignment should be definite and should ordinarily be for work units rather than limited to the part to be accomplished each day. It should be in terms of

topics, problems, or projects and should indicate definitely the sources of materials. It should also afford enough worth-while activities to give the superior pupil sufficient opportunity and inducement to employ his talents to the maximum.

Essential aspects of supervised study.—The discussion is an essential aspect of supervised study. In the discussion new principles are developed. Common difficulties are taken up and met. Individual pupils or groups of pupils report the results of the study of special problems or topics for the benefit of the class as a whole. Ideas are exchanged with regard to the work at hand, different views presented, and suggestions made with reference to the work being done or things that members of the class are desirous of doing. All should contribute.

In the study or work period each pupil should be productively engaged and achieving at his best rate. He should have clearly in mind the ends to be attained. Not all pupils should be expected to accomplish the same amount or reach the same standards as to the quality of the work done. The important thing in the study period is that each do the best he can at his own best rate. In connection with his particular task he should be developing desirable habits and standards of work and study in a favorable environment. Indeed, in the earlier stages of a program of supervised study the most valuable work of the instructor will often consist of teaching the pupils how to study.

The function of the teacher during supervised study.—The duties of the instructor in supervised study depend to some extent upon the nature of the class and the subject being studied. Certain suggestions may be made, however, that are broadly applicable.

1. The instructor should act as the general manager of the class activities, as the director and adviser.

2. He should make previous to the study period a careful assignment setting forth the specific objectives for the work, the problems, topics, etc., and the sources of materials. This is not necessary each day where the assignment is made according to work units.
3. See that materials needed are available.
4. See that the physical environment is conducive to work.
5. See that each pupil understands clearly what his task is.
6. Encourage each pupil to utilize his time and energy fully, help him to avoid wasteful methods of work, and guide him to more effective ones.
7. Give each pupil assistance when needed but encourage initiative and the assumption of self-responsibility by not giving too much help.
8. Limit the amount of trial and error by suggesting at appropriate times ways of overcoming difficulties apparently insurmountable.
9. Give instruction as needed in methods of study, use of reference books and other sources, the taking of notes, etc.
10. If needed, when taking up for the first time a new phase of work, go through with the class the operation required.
11. Observe the various pupils at work to discover their interests, aptitudes, weaknesses, and strengths as a basis for future guidance.

Supervised study and home work.—One of the great advantages of the plan of supervised study is that all new work can be begun under the direct guidance of the teacher. Home work becomes a continuation of study begun in the class period. The pupil thus has an opportunity to discover all major difficulties and receive needed help from his instructor during the class hour. His study at home is concerned with finishing tasks, the nature and requirements of which he already knows through the initial steps taken in class. In the junior high school, with the possible exception of the last year, all, or the major portion, of the school work should ordinarily be done at school.

The superior pupil as a helper of less capable pupils.—In some schools the superior pupils help the less capable members of the class. They assist the weak pupils in plan-

ning and writing their compositions, in solving troublesome problems in mathematics, in performing laboratory experiments, and in various other ways, depending upon the subject studied. Sometimes they help the instructor in checking and correcting the written work of the class. Sometimes they assist in recording class marks, in making out report cards, and in the performance of other more or less mechanical, routine duties. Within limits this is recognition of superior ability and represents worth-while activity on the part of such pupils. Such activities should be engaged in by capable pupils ordinarily only to the extent that they are educationally worth while. To be sure, they may have, in addition to their values pertaining directly to the objectives of the course, certain civic values. They give, for example, if not overdone, desirable practice in the development of habits and attitudes of service.

The utilization of the bright pupil's time and ability in assisting weak pupils and in performing routine tasks for the instructor, particularly the latter, should, however, be practiced with moderation. Carried too far, the capable pupil is actually penalized because of his ability. Any subject worthy a place in a secondary-school curriculum has a subject-matter content sufficient in extent to engage profitably the most brilliant pupil the full time allotted to its pursuit. The major portion of the time left over after the required work is accomplished should be devoted by the capable pupil to extending and deepening his knowledge of the subject and not in assisting pupils with a halt or in making out report cards and performing other routine tasks for the instructor.

The recognition of differences in ability through weighted credit.—The system of weighted credit now in use in a considerable number of secondary schools and colleges may be regarded as an attempt to give recognition to differences in ability. According to this system a pupil doing a unit of work with an average degree of excellence

receives credit for one unit; a pupil doing a unit of work with a superior degree of excellence receives credit for a unit and a quarter. On the other hand, a pupil doing work of barely passing grade receives for a unit of work done only three-fourths of a unit credit. For varying degrees of excellence above average additional increments of credit are received and for varying degrees of quality below the average increments of credit are subtracted.

Let us assume, as has been done in the discussion above, that the largest increment added for superior work is one-fourth normal credit and the largest increment subtracted for work barely passing is one-fourth of normal credit. On this basis, to meet the standard requirements of twenty-four credit units for graduation from a junior-senior high school the pupil of average ability achieving normally would have to take during his high-school career twenty-four unit-credit courses. The superior pupil achieving according to his ability would meet the requirements by twenty unit-credit courses; and the slow pupil achieving normally would be compelled to take for the completion of his high-school course thirty-two unit-credit subjects, which taken at the rate of four a year would require eight years for their completion.

The system of weighted credits, at least, in the secondary school seems to have both psychological and sociological weaknesses. It recognizes ability through credit for quality alone. As a result the pupil who is less capable is required to cover more ground than the superior pupil. Because he is slow the less able pupil must actually travel further than the pupil who because of greater ability is able to progress at a more rapid rate and more efficiently. On the other hand, the superior pupil, because of his ability, is the one who is most likely to occupy positions of leadership. To fit him for his responsibilities he needs not only a deeper but a broader acquaintance with life than does his less capable schoolmate who will undoubtedly serve best

by doing a few things relatively well. The superior pupil rather than the weak pupil should during his course pursue thirty-two different unit-credit subjects. The practical results of the weighted credit system would thus seem to be actually the reverse of what they should be if they are to harmonize with either psychological or sociological principles of education.

A just system of credits should recognize both quality and quantity in such a manner as to encourage in the capable pupil not only excellence of achievement but additional achievement. It should not be such as to require the less capable pupil to cover a larger range of subject matter but should permit him rather to concentrate upon the essentials within a limited range and to progress at a reasonable rate. Standards both of quality and of quantity should be lower for him than for the superior pupil.

Conclusion.—Those administering the work of the small high school may well keep before themselves the principle that learning is an individual matter primarily and that each pupil should in so far as possible be working at the rate most in harmony with his ability and achieving results of as high a degree of excellence as he is economically capable. They should think of success as relative rather than absolute and emphasize success on the part of each pupil by making it possible for him, with a reasonable amount of effort and application, to achieve success. By using one or more of the means suggested in this chapter, much can be done in the direction of realizing these ideals without lowering the standards of the school as a whole and, at the same time, without placing upon so many pupils the stigma of failure.

Problems

1. In the light of individual differences among high-school pupils what are the weaknesses of uniform assignments and requirements in high-school work?

2. What uses can the teacher make of the results of intelligence tests and other records of pupils' abilities and interests in adjusting his courses to their needs?

3. Organize a unit of some high-school subject on a problem or project-problem basis and into minimal essentials and additional materials that may be utilized by pupils of superior ability.

4. Analyze the activities and difficulties of the pupils of a class in some subject with reference to the things that might be done by the instructor during the period of supervised study.

5. To what extent and in what ways should pupils of ability be asked to help backward pupils and the teacher in the performance of his routine duties?

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CHAPTER XIV

THE GOVERNMENT OF THE SCHOOL

Former autocratic character of government in the secondary school.—Until recent years, the prevailing form of government in our secondary schools was of the autocratic type. Principals and teachers formulated the rules for the pupils' conduct in and out of the classroom and demanded unquestioned obedience. The faculty served as police, jury, and judge. The tendencies of youth were in general regarded as antisocial, hence control was sought largely through repression. Frequently an important feature of school life was the matching of wits between faculty and pupils, the former devising ways and means of enforcing their rules, and the latter ways and means of evading or breaking them. The situation often resembled that of a house divided against itself, where for a member of either side to aid or abet the other was, to say the least, a serious misdemeanor. Under such a system of government, for a pupil to expose a wrongdoing on the part of another pupil was to disgrace himself in the eyes of his schoolmates.

Changing character of secondary-school control.—Probably in few secondary schools of the present time are to be found forms of control as dictatorial in character as those common in the high schools of half a century ago. In many small high schools of to-day, however, the traditional methods of control still prevail. Pupil government is largely negative or repressive. Pupils themselves feel under little or no obligation to report or make uncomfortable the way of the transgressor. From reports of several

hundred principals of small high schools, and from observations in more than 150 such schools throughout the country, the writer concludes that a relatively small amount of responsibility is placed upon the pupils, and but limited encouragement to the forming of habits and standards of conduct. Even the planning and management of assemblies and other extraclass activities are mainly in the hands of the faculty. The educational opportunities in the government of the school are not recognized to any great degree, in practice at least, in a large proportion of small high schools.

The adolescent and secondary-school government.—The adolescent is full of energy; he revels in activity. He desires to live abundantly. He inclines toward independence in action and assumes responsibility readily, but, at the same time, is easily susceptible to the influence of suggestion, example, and public opinion. The wise principal and teacher recognize these characteristics of youth and capitalize upon them by providing means for promoting activity in desirable directions. Upon these activities they build the foundation of school government and control.

Where there is a dearth of school activities; where the school work is formal, segmented, and uninteresting; and where instruction is listless and mechanical, problems of control multiply. On the other hand, where every pupil's time is fully taken up with classroom work energetically directed toward recognized goals and with interesting extraclass activities, in both of which he shoulders his share of responsibility for results, a healthy school spirit tends to develop and problems of control are reduced to the minimum. The school becomes a busy community where each performs his part and where public opinion becomes a potent factor in individual and group control.

School government as a phase of education.—The government of the secondary school should function educationally. It should be an important means of education

with reference to the subsidiary aims, especially to those of civic and sociability efficiency. It should promote the development of desirable habits, attitudes, standards, and ideals of social conduct; a sense of responsibility of a member of a democratic society; habits and ideals of service; and a rational attitude toward life problems. These objectives cannot be reached through special subjects or departments alone. While certain studies may supply materials of value, their attainment is largely dependent upon habits, attitudes, standards, and ideals developed in connection with the whole range of school activities. To have values in the attainment of the aims and objectives mentioned, the government of the secondary school should be democratic in character. It should be such as to give pupils opportunity, through practice in specific situations typical of life, to develop those characteristics deemed desirable in a citizen of a democracy. It should encourage the development of habits of self-control, initiative, industry, and coöperation; open-mindedness, the acceptance of personal responsibility for one's acts, and habits and standards of service for the common good.

The twofold nature of secondary-school government.—The problem of school government as a phase of education is twofold. It is psychological in that it is concerned with individuals differing to some extent in dispositions and experience but similar in most of their tendencies to behavior. It is sociological in that it is concerned with the conduct of the individual as a member of various groups. Hence, like all other phases of education, it is a problem of developing in a positive way through specific activities, both individual and group, appropriate habits, attitudes, standards, and ideals of conduct.

The negative character of autocratic types of control.—The autocratic type of government and control was repressive or negative in nature. It minimized the importance of intelligence or thinking in determining conduct,

and stressed passive, unthinking obedience. It emphasized "thou shalt not"; it governed through prohibition. It sought to attain its ends through external force. The ideal of a democratic form of control, on the other hand, is positive. It is educative. It seeks to reach its goal through the development of self-control and the acceptance of personal responsibility. Instead of prohibiting it encourages activity. Through guided activities in a group environment it aims to establish desirable habits, attitudes, and standards of conduct. It reproduces in the school a social environment the nature of which all have a share in determining and maintaining. Through the coöperative effort of pupils and teachers under rules and regulations the nature and purpose of which are known and accepted by all, it works to build up unity of purpose and a vitalizing school spirit.

The positive character of democratic types of control.—In a democratic type of school government it is not to be assumed that secondary-school pupils are mature and ready to accept entire responsibility for their group life, but rather that they are to be trained in and through group activities for the character and control of which they have some measure of responsibility. From time to time in high schools, small and large, systems of self-government have been experimented with. In most instances, where they have actually represented self-government, they have been unsuccessful. Their failure has undoubtedly been due to the fact that secondary-school pupils have not yet sufficiently formed desirable habits and standards of control in group situations. They are not in possession of social standards to guide them, nor do they have either the maturity or the experience to direct them in making sound judgments where individual desire and social demands conflict.

Advantages of coöperative government.—Because of the immaturity and lack of practice in the art of gov-

erning themselves on the part of secondary pupils, coöperative government seems to be the democratic type best suited to the high school. Faculty and pupils together make up the citizenry of the school. Responsibility for internal government and control is placed upon the pupils according to their ability to bear it. In some communities pupils will be capable of assuming a greater measure of responsibility for their own conduct than in others, depending upon the social habits, attitudes, and standards prevailing in the community and upon the form of government previously used in the school. The education of the pupil in matters of control, as in all other educational activities, should build directly upon the experience background of the pupils concerned. The less opportunity they have had for practicing self-control, the less responsibility they will be prepared to assume at any given time.

Organization of coöperative government.—Under a cooperative form of government the principal is the final authority in all school policies, subject of course to the approval of the superintendent or, in small schools, to the board of education. He is responsible for the general welfare of the school, consequently, for the success of all its activities. To both teachers and pupils, however, he looks for suggestions and counsel in initiating and developing regulations governing school life. The teachers are his administrative cabinet for determining finally the general policies of school government. A representative group of pupils keeps him in direct touch with the sentiments of the pupil body, assumes certain responsibilities for initiating and controlling pupil activities, and becomes the nucleus through which pupil support of the regulations of the school is promoted.

Simplicity of organization desirable in small school.—In the small secondary school the organization for control should be relatively simple. Top-heavy organization often defeats the very purpose for which it is designed.

The following suggests in a general way an organization which has proved successful in small schools. The principal, the executive head of the school, is the final authority in all matters of school policy and ex officio member of all executive committees of pupil organizations. The principal's cabinet is composed of the instructors. In the cabinet are brought up for consideration all questions pertaining to the internal administration and organization of the school. The pupil council is composed of the presidents of the regular extraclass organizations and one to three representatives elected by the pupil body as a whole. In the junior high school the pupil council may be composed of the presidents of extraclass organizations and the home-room presidents.

The principal and his cabinet determine finally all policies and regulations affecting the general organization and government of the school. The pupil council is the principal's advisory body representing the pupils. With it he discusses the regulations and policies adopted by the cabinet and the reasons for their adoption. To it he explains plans for improving the school and from it gets suggestions. The council may present for discussion and pass upon ideas and plans for improving the activities of the school and their control subject to the approval of principal and cabinet. With it the principal may also consider ways and means of meeting specific problems concerning the pupils and of promoting special school projects requiring the coöperation of the school as a whole. The council may with the principal and faculty advisers exercise general control over all extraclass activities, pass upon the desirability of proposed activities, and act as the approval committee to which are submitted the rules and regulations defining the purpose and government of the different pupil activities. It should become in every school the nucleus around which a healthy school spirit is developed.

Pupil responsibility in class and extraclass activities.—In the secondary school some of the best opportunities for pupil responsibility in government and control are to be found in the classroom and in the extraclass activities.

1. *The government of extraclass activities.*—Every extraclass organization, whether regular or occasional, should afford pupils opportunity to initiate, to plan, and to organize programs or projects and to practice self-control in carrying them out.

The government of pupil activities should be delegated in large measure to the pupils themselves. The various organizations should operate under special rules and regulations which they have drawn up. These regulations, however, should be democratic and in harmony with the general rules and regulations governing all pupil activities. Each organization should have a faculty adviser who should counsel and guide but not dictate. Under his guidance the pupils should develop in detail plans for programs, etc., the ideas for which they have to a large degree initiated. Responsibility for the carrying out of these plans should be primarily theirs. Whenever more than one course of action offers itself the pupils themselves should ordinarily decide upon the one to be pursued. Pupil officers should have charge of the meetings of the organizations. By counsel, suggestion, and example, the adviser should help each group to form through practice desirable social habits and to set up for its guidance standards of conduct. Through pupil activities thus conducted, qualities of leadership and habits of coöperation are developed in normal situations.

2. *Government in the classroom.*—No small part of the success of a coöperative form of government in the secondary school depends upon the character and organization of classroom activities. Here, as no place else, perhaps, can develop the mutual respect between pupils and teachers, and those habits and ideals of coöperation and

service essential to a healthy school atmosphere. In so many small high schools the major portion of all the work is restricted to a single textbook. The activities of the classroom are so often the traditional recitation where the time is spent in retracing steps that all have previously taken, where nothing new stimulates the interest or perplexes the mental serenity of the pupil. Commonly, also, the assignments are uniform for all pupils and have no clearly defined purpose or objectives to motivate the pupils in their study. Frequently there are no evident contacts between the activities in the classroom and the activities of life outside the school. All these things are either directly or indirectly antagonistic to good government. Coöperation outside the classroom must begin within the classroom.

There are many ways in which the work of the classroom may contribute to the social objectives of education, in the forming, among others, of habits of initiative, self-control, coöperation, and rational attitudes through coöperation in government and control. As they primarily belong to a discussion of method, only enough will be mentioned to serve as illustrations. The assignments may be so made that all pupils in the class know definitely the objectives to be reached. They may be built around interesting, worth-while problems or projects. They may offer opportunities for selection on the part of the pupil and may also permit pupils to follow beyond the required limits lines of peculiar interest to them. They may indicate the general bearing of the subject upon life activities, cultural, civic, vocational, etc., and emphasize at appropriate times specific relationships. They may sometimes outline a unit of work covering several days for its accomplishment, permitting the pupil to distribute his work as he sees fit. Pupils may be encouraged to contribute pertinent facts and materials gained through reading, observation, and other sources for the benefit of the other members of

the class. They may also be encouraged to use initiative in the way of suggesting problems, topics, etc. that they regard as worth while, and even to suggest ends that they think the class might well work toward. A concrete illustration of this was observed by the writer in a class in American history and civics taught by the principal of a small high school. Each Monday morning the members of the class brought newspaper clippings containing material bearing upon the week's work. From these clippings the class selected three to five that they regarded as worthy of further consideration. The pupils who had made those contributions were then asked to give at the next meeting a three- to five-minute discussion of the points or facts in the clippings and their bearing upon the work the class was doing. This procedure encouraged initiative and judgment, linked up the school work with human affairs outside the school, and afforded each member of the class opportunity to contribute something of value in furthering the activities of the group.

Instead of the formal question and answer type of recitation, the class period may be devoted in large measure to class discussions, individual or group reports, and productive work. Pupils may be encouraged to take up the various problems and topics, and, through orderly discussion, in which each one presents whatever new materials he has discovered, develop them. Frequently, individual pupils or committees may give the results of special study on particular phases of the assignment unit. Frequently, also, the class may choose one of its members to preside during a discussion or through the period. Often the most profitable way to use the class period is to give it over to productive work where the pupils individually or in groups of two or three are engaged in the performance of new tasks.

Illustrative examples of school government.—In a small high school in eastern Tennessee, the principal had devel-

oped the practice, it might almost be called custom, among the pupils that whenever an instructor was absent from the classroom the class would appoint a chairman and continue with the day's work. During a day spent at the school the writer observed two classes, one a second-year class in history and the other a fourth-year class in solid geometry, in neither of which the instructor had been in the room during the period. Although it was in each case past the middle of the hour, the work was going on under pupil direction with excellent order and effectiveness. In fact, in each instance the proportion of the class actually participating in the accomplishment of the day's task was far in excess of that in the majority of recitations going forward under the direction of an instructor. Each class was an excellent illustration of high-school pupils, assuming at once and efficiently a responsibility placed upon them, recognizing a leader among their number, and under his direction working together as a group with common interests in the performance of the task at hand. The whole school was pervaded by a spirit of coöperative effort governed by high standards. No teachers policed the halls at the taking up or close of sessions or at the change of classes, yet all movement through the building was orderly. Mutual confidence seemed to prevail between teachers and pupils.

Three days later the writer visited another school of similar size but much better equipped in every way. The high-school pupils marched into the building in military fashion under the watchful eye of the principal. Teachers were stationed at every door where they could keep one eye upon their room and the other upon the hall. In the classrooms a goodly portion of the instructors' time and energy was consumed in attempting to keep order. With the exception of one class in English, practically the only indication of activity with a concrete objective in view was when a pupil threw an eraser or a piece of chalk at a

classmate. This seemed to happen whenever the instructor's eyes were not upon the class. In this school no responsibility was put upon the pupils for their conduct in school. No coöperation in government existed; yet, so far as could be judged, the possibilities of coöperation between pupils and teachers were just as great, if not greater, in the latter school as in the one previously mentioned. There would appear to be no question as to which school was doing the most toward training for citizenship, though the programs of studies in the two schools were almost identical.

A coöperative form of government requires vital, interesting classroom work. The pupils must coöperate in activities worth while and must share the responsibility for results. Every individual should be worthily employed throughout the allotted time. There must be mutual helpfulness and respect between pupils and instructor. This requires on the part of the instructor, honesty, sane enthusiasm, a businesslike manner, and confidence based upon a mastery of the subject being taught.

The introduction of a coöperative type of government.—Faculties of small high schools should not introduce a coöperative form of school government under the impression that it requires less attention than the traditional, autocratic type. It requires more. It means sympathetic participation on the part of the teachers in all school activities. On the part of advisers it means many precious minutes spent in discussing with their executive committees and program committees the problems of the organization. It means attendance at all meetings of the club. Of the principal, it requires foresight, kindliness, and good judgment—qualities of leadership. It necessitates the administration of the internal life of the school under the minimum number of fixed rules and regulations and the delegation of a great deal of authority. To spend an hour every two weeks or once a month talking over with the

pupil council the affairs of the school may often seem to be at the sacrifice of other more important duties.

Conclusion.—From the educational standpoint, however, coöperative government in the secondary school is worth the time and attention it requires. It is democratic. It is giving pupils training in those habits and ideals of conduct deemed essential to good citizenship. It tends to give to school activities a vitality, a naturalness, and a satisfyingness impossible of realization under the traditional type of control. Although it requires much from the faculty, it should offer as a recompense a better atmosphere in which to carry on the work of the school and a consequent decrease in mental strain. Gradually introduced in classroom and out, it should give the pupil of the small high school, where all are intimately acquainted, many valuable educational experiences otherwise denied him.

Problems

1. Analyze the term coöperative control as applied to the government of a high school and show the place of the principal, of the instructors, and of the pupils.
2. In what ways can the pupils participate in the government: (*a*) of the classroom, (*b*) of the general activities of the school?
3. Make a partial analysis of certain phases of the civic and sociability groups of activities as shown in Chapter IV with reference to desirable habits, attitudes, and ideals that might be developed through pupil participation in the government of the school.
4. Develop in some detail a plan for a pupil council in a small junior or senior high school, indicating its organization and activities.

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CHAPTER XV

EXTRACLASS ACTIVITIES

The development of extraclass activities in the secondary school.—The encouragement of extraclass activities has been within the last few years a significant development in secondary schools. It is one of the concrete evidences of the growth of a new philosophy of secondary education, a broader philosophy built upon the needs both of the adolescent and of a democratic form of society. It is a recognition of the fact that curriculums, in the sense of studies carried on in the regular classroom, are too narrow to meet all the educational responsibilities of the school. Leaders in the field of secondary education have seen clearly that in the attainment of certain objectives pertaining to habits, attitudes, tastes, appreciations, etc., of broad social import, the activities of the classroom are insufficient and that the goals desired may be gained more economically and effectively through other means. To a large degree extraclass activities supply these means.

Recognition of extraclass activities by secondary-school faculties.—In general, secondary-school administrators and teachers have come to an appreciation of the educational values of extraclass activities in the school. In the large urban high schools a great deal of attention is given to their encouragement, organization, and guidance. In junior high schools especially, they are regarded as an essential and integral part of school life and are given a definite place in the schools' programs. In many junior high schools each pupil is required to identify himself with at least one extraclass activity. In the large high

schools, both junior and senior, plans have been devised for the organization and control of these activities through pupil boards, pupil councils, and various systems of faculty advisers. Responsibility for their furtherance and guidance is considered as a definite part of each teacher's work.

Extraclass activities in small secondary schools.—Secondary schools in rural and village communities have not accomplished as much as urban schools either in the promotion and organization of extraclass activities or in their incorporation as a regular part of the school's program. In a small proportion of such schools they are still looked upon as interlopers; in a relatively large number they receive but little attention; and in others they are actively encouraged and directed. Because of the limited number of pupils enrolled, the limited number of teachers, and the heavy teaching load, particularly in the number of subjects taught and classes met daily, the problems of providing adequate and appropriate pupil activities and of directing them when organized have offered special difficulties in the small high school.

That the program of extraclass activities is as yet but imperfectly developed in small high schools is indicated by all studies bearing upon the problem. Belting, interpreting a study made by the High School Principal's Association of Illinois on the status of extraclass activities in the high schools of that state in 1920-21, concludes: "The facts from a classification of the extraclass activities in the large, medium, and small high schools show that these activities are more extensively developed in the large than in the small high schools. For example, the small high school shows no student government or civics club, while the school paper and band have seemingly been neglected. Moreover, scarcely any attention has been given to welfare organizations, art, commercial clubs, or dramatics. The literary society, the glee club, and the orchestra are the

most common forms of extraclass activities in all sizes of high schools.'' [1]

An unpublished study of the township and community high schools of Illinois by Earl A. Collins shows results for those schools very similar to the statements quoted in the preceding paragraph. The author of this study found that the extraclass activities most common were in the order of frequency, athletics, literary clubs, musical organizations, and dramatics. He concludes that the typical township or community high school of Illinois has three types of extraclass activities: athletics, musical clubs, and literary clubs.[2]

In 405 small high schools of New York, reporting on extraclass activities for 1920-21, those most common in the order of their frequency were athletics, Boy Scouts, school paper (frequently space in a local newspaper), orchestra, and girls' Camp Fire and Scout organizations. Sixty-five per cent of the schools had an athletic association, 45 per cent a Boy-Scout troop, 37 per cent a school paper, 33 per cent either Girl Scouts or Camp Fire Girls, and 29 per cent a school orchestra. Twenty per cent of the schools had a glee club, 10 per cent a literary club, and 8 per cent a debating club. Other activities found in five and fewer than twenty schools were dramatic, class, science, and French clubs, Girl Reserves, and the Hi Y. One hundred and eighty-two of the 405 schools reporting had no extraclass activities other than athletics, Boy Scouts, and Camp Fire Girls or Girl Scouts.

Reports in 1923 from 464 small high schools distributed over forty-seven states gave figures very similar to those of New York. The extraclass activities most commonly found in those schools were in the order of frequency an

[1] Paul E. Belting, *The Community and Its High School* (D. C. Heath, 1923), p. 262.

[2] Earl A. Collins, *A Survey of the Township and Community High Schools of Illinois* (1923).

TABLE V.—NUMBER AND TYPES OF EXTRACLASS ACTIVITIES IN 405 SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS OF NEW YORK (1921-22).[1]

Types	Number of Schools	Per Cent
Athletic association	262	65
Boy Scout troop	181	45
School paper or space in local paper	149	37
Camp Fire Girls and Girl Scouts	132	33
Orchestra	119	29
Glee clubs	79	20
Literary clubs	41	10
Debating club	33	8

[1] E. N. Ferriss, "The Rural High School," *Rural School Survey of New York State*, p. 31. Activities reported by fewer than twenty schools are not included in the table.

TABLE VI.—EXTRACLASS ACTIVITIES FOUND IN 464 SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS DISTRIBUTED OVER FORTY-SEVEN STATES

Type	Number of Schools	Per Cent
Athletic association	270	58
School paper or space in local paper	174	38
Literary club	167	36
Glee club	140	30
Orchestra	103	22
Debating club	79	17
Boy Scouts	67	14
Camp Fire Girls or Girl Scouts	65	14
Science club	23	5
Dramatic club	15	3
School annual	13	3
Pupil council	12	3
Band	6	1

athletic association, a school paper or space in a local paper, a literary club, a glee club, an orchestra, and a debating club. Of the 464 schools, 58 per cent had an athletic association, 38 per cent a literary club, 30 per cent one or more glee clubs, 22 per cent an orchestra, and 17 per cent a debating club. Fourteen per cent had a Boy-Scout

troop, and a similar percentage either Camp Fire Girls or Girl Scouts. Other activities found in more than five schools were a science club, a dramatic club, a school annual, a student council, and a band. In only twelve schools, or 3 per cent, was there a pupil council. Of the 464 schools, sixty-seven or slightly over 14 per cent, reported no extraclass activities.

The organization of extraclass activities in small schools.—In the time of meeting of extraclass activities and in the nature and amount of control exercised by the faculty, there is wide variation among small high schools. Data at hand indicate that in the majority of such schools they have not been given a place in the regular school program. In New York the extraclass activities met out of school hours in 92 per cent of the schools having such activities. Of those having such activities in the 464 small high schools referred to above, 48 per cent had the meetings out of school hours, 31 per cent held some of them out of school hours, and 21 per cent had them scheduled within the regular school program. The largest percentage meeting within school hours was found in consolidated rural high schools.

TABLE VII.—TIME OF MEETING OF EXTRACLASS ACTIVITIES

Source of Information	Out of School Hours		Some During and Some After School Hours		During School Hours		No Extraclass Activities	Not Reported
	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Per Cent	Number	Number
464 small high schools of United States	180	48[1]	115	31	78	21	67	24
405 small high schools of New York ..	158	92	6	3	8	5	182[2]	51

[1] Percentages are based upon the number having extraclass activities.
[2] None or none other than athletics, Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, and Camp Fire Girls.

Extraclass activities and characteristics prominent in adolescents.—Modern scientific studies have established beyond any reasonable doubt that the characteristics of adolescence are of gradual, continuous development, and have discredited the theory previously held that the ushering in of the characteristics prominent in adolescence is sudden and abrupt. This is not to be interpreted to mean, however, that there are no characteristics of special prominence during a part or all of that period. Adolescence is marked by the gradual loss of childish traits and their replacement by the characteristics of adult life. It is in this sense a time of conflicts and transition. Prominent during the period is the development of individuality or personality, characterized by the gradual evolving of specific interests, aptitudes, tastes, and purposes. Confidence in the ability to succeed in individual undertakings is normally strong. The tide of emotional life ordinarily runs high. Spontaneity of action is natural, and freedom and independence of action are desired. Concomitant with the growth of the sex instinct goes the development of the social tendencies; individual standards gradually come to be evaluated in terms of group standards. The adolescent becomes interested in the activities of society, of the group, and social approval and disapproval become important determinants of behavior. Group loyalty and an altruistic attitude manifested in the service willingly rendered others are prominent characteristics.

Any careful analysis of the characteristics prominent in adolescence gives convincing evidence, it would seem, of the need in secondary education of affording opportunities for group activities. It also shows the need of activities where greater spontaneity and independence of action is possible than are ordinarily given in the regular, more or less routine, work of the classroom. Secondary education based upon objectives determined with reference to the activities and standards of society likewise gives emphasis

to the educational values of extraclass activities. The school becomes a community which should represent in its activities all the major activities of life. In its concern for health, guidance, social conduct, recreation, and abiding interests, extraclass activities find their rightful place and values. They are especially valuable in small high schools where the curriculum is necessarily limited in the variety of activities for which it can afford opportunity. They are based upon strong interests which the school should direct and develop. They give social training through actual participation in coöperative enterprises.

Extraclass activities and avocational and recreational needs.—In the field of training for avocational and recreational pursuits, they offer possibilities of extending the range beyond that practicable in the regular work of the classroom. They have guidance values and furnish avenues through which the activities of the school may be unified and a desirable school spirit built up. A well organized and directed program of extraclass activities is conducive to better school work and operates directly toward the solution of many of the most perplexing problems of discipline.

Extraclass activities and school citizenship.—In organizing, managing, and contributing to extraclass activities the pupil is participating in school citizenship in the best sense. Where the responsibility for the character and success of these activities is placed in large measure upon the pupil under the sympathetic counsel and guidance of the faculty, he has a real opportunity for exercising initiative. At the same time he is receiving training in accepting responsibility for the success or failure of undertakings in the planning and execution of which he has had a share. Through coöperation with other pupils in furthering a common group interest he learns to give and take and is afforded opportunity for developing whatever qualities he may possess of leadership and followership.

Classification of extraclass activities and relation to secondary-school objectives.—All extraclass activities in the secondary school should have some definite bearing upon the attainment of the objectives of secondary education. Two types of such activities should be represented in the program of each school: (1) Those combining the furtherance of the pupil's cultural or vocational interests and his desires for group activity. Of these, examples are the literary, debating, and dramatic clubs; the school paper, the glee club, the orchestra, and band; and the various science, art, home-making, agricultural clubs, etc.; (2) Those primarily pertaining to sociability as the various kinds of class and school parties.

From another angle extraclass activities may be classified as: (1) the regular, those meeting according to a definite schedule; and (2) the occasional or special activities as, the pageant, the school exhibit, the school play, school and class parties, dances, and school programs and entertainments for special occasions.

The program of extraclass activities in the small school.—In the small high school where only a limited number of extraclass activities can be fostered, these should be selected with great care in the light of the interests and needs of the pupils of the school. Among the regular activities the range should be broad enough to include at least the more common recreational and avocational interests of the pupils as music, literature, science, and athletics. Other activities should be added as the size of the school permits and as the interests and needs of sufficiently large groups of pupils make feasible. Often the most valuable activities for a small high school will be those supplying in part at least lacks or deficiencies in the educational activities of the school program or in the life of the community.

A great danger in the conduct of extraclass activities.—One significant danger in the conduct of extraclass activi-

ties is the overprominence of the ideas and authority of the teachers in charge. Particularly is this likely to be true of those activities closely related to subjects in the regular program as science, mathematics, and language clubs. They frequently become mere extensions of the classroom in which the nature of the activity and its purposes are identical or closely similar to those of the daily classroom work and are selected by the instructor to supplement that work. This tends to make of the activity an additional class exercise and defeats, in large measure, the legitimate purpose of extraclass activities. In the small high school where only a few activities can be carried on, it is usually unwise to stress those closely related to subjects taught in the regular program of the school. Rather, the few that are supported should in the main represent those needs of the pupils not met in the daily work of the school. Above all, they should afford opportunity for initiative on the part of the pupils in selecting the things to be done. The successful faculty member responsible for a pupil activity, keeps informed, advises, counsels, anticipates the probable course of events, and relies mainly upon the weight and force of timely suggestions and advice, but rarely dictates. He is a friendly coöperator and colaborer, turned to naturally by the other members of the club because of his interest and greater wisdom and experience.

The extent of pupil participation.—All pupils should be encouraged to enter into extraclass activities, but care should be taken that proper balance is maintained in the case of each pupil in the relative amount of time and energy devoted to such activities and to classroom studies. Overemphasis in either direction is undesirable. Some schools set up scholarship standards for membership in extraclass organizations. The soundness of this as a general policy would appear to be questionable. It is just as desirable, perhaps even more so, that the poor student

should participate to a reasonable extent in such activities as that the superior pupil should. The educational values to be realized remain the same, and, in the case of the pupil of low rank in the regular studies, there is the possibility that interests found or developed through extraclass activities may be such as to vitalize his work in the classroom. To limit positions of honor to pupils maintaining desirable standards in scholarship would seem to be as far as such restrictions should extend.

Democratic character desirable.—It is highly desirable in the small high school, as in every school, that extraclass activities be democratic in character. Not only should they be open to all pupils on the same basis, but the financial cost to the individual pupil should be kept at the minimum. To just the degree that membership in an organization becomes a financial burden does it tend to bar those pupils less able financially and hence fails to serve the purposes of education in a democracy.

One of the serious problems in the organization of a program of extraclass activities in the small school is that of having their meetings at a time when all pupils are free to participate. The most frequent practice is to have the meetings out of school hours. In practically all secondary schools a considerable proportion of the pupils have duties outside of school which make it difficult or impossible for them to take part in activities after school hours. In many instances those are the very pupils who need such activities most. In consolidated schools, particularly where many or the majority of the pupils are transported to and from school, it is almost essential that extraclass meetings come within the regular school day. To meet this problem, many small high schools keep one period of the day free for those activities. In all small high schools, if all pupils are to have equal opportunities for engaging in such activities, as they should have, at least one period a week should be devoted regularly to this phase of education.

The direction of extraclass activities.—In general, in the small high school, each teacher should be responsible for the oversight and guidance of at least one regular extraclass activity and should bear his share of responsibility for the occasional or special activities. In so far as possible, one criterion in the selection of the teaching staff should be the securing of teachers interested in and capable of directing the pupil activities desirable in the school. The principal should keep informed with regard to all such activities and should take an active interest in them. Usually, unless absolutely necessary, he should probably not assume responsibility for the immediate direction of any regular extraclass activity.

Principles of organization and control.—The conditions within the school should undoubtedly determine to a certain extent the organization and control of extraclass activities. There are, however, certain principles or rules, more or less widely accepted, which should prove helpful to those developing a plan for such activities in a small high school.

1. Each pupil should be encouraged to identify himself with at least one regular extraclass activity other than athletics, and in the junior high school should be required to do so. The pupil, where possible, should be permitted to select the activity in which he is to participate.
2. All pupil activities should be open to all pupils of the school on the same basis, the membership in no case to be determined by the vote of the members.
3. Membership in all pupil organizations should automatically cease when school membership ceases.
4. No pupil should be eligible to hold office in a school organization, participate in a major part in special open public school programs, or participate in interschool contests who is not doing satisfactory work in at least three-fourths of the average weekly schedule for pupils of the school.
5. No pupil should be eligible to the presidency of more than one regular activity at any one time, except that captaincy of an athletic team should not ordinarily make a pupil in-

eligible as president of other types of activities or vice versa.

6. The tenure of office should ordinarily be for one term; but officers of a special activity should be chosen by the school, or the group of pupils concerned, to hold office until the enterprise is completed.
7. Where possible the meetings of extraclass organizations should be in the school building and during the regular school day. Occasional entertainments, social functions, and athletics are exceptions which should ordinarily come out of school hours and on Friday or Saturday. In the junior high school, social functions and entertainments should ordinarily come in the school day.
8. Every pupil activity, whether regular or occasional, should have a faculty adviser who should be present at all its general meetings and those of its executive committee.
9. The executive committee of each organization should be composed of its president, vice-president, secretary-treasurer, faculty adviser, and one member of the organization elected at large.

A few small high schools are organized with a pupil council which meets with the principal to discuss problems and policies of interest to the school as a whole. This pupil council becomes, as it were, the pupil representative body in the government of the school and may be of great value in building up a healthful spirit of coöperation between faculty and pupils and in promoting the best interests of the school. The presidents of the regular extraclass activities may by virtue of their office become members of this council. They, with the class presidents, or in the junior high school, the home-room presidents, and two or three pupils representing the pupil body as a whole, may compose the council.

The educational values of extraclass activities.—All extraclass activities should be promoted for their educational values, recreational and otherwise. They should be suited to the maturity and interests of the pupils participating, and should not be carried beyond the point where

their legitimate ends are realized. They are incidentally valuable in stimulating community interest in the school, particularly in small communities. This is desirable provided it can be done within the bounds suggested. Frequently, however, especially in clubs closely related to prevocational or vocational work, and in athletics, the legitimate educational purposes are lost sight of and the activity is used to promote some particular interest in the community. This is always undesirable as it prostitutes the best interests of the pupils to advertising purposes.

The status of athletics in the small secondary school.—Athletics are quite generally regarded as a necessary phase of the pupil activities of a modern secondary school. Without athletics an effective plan of health education cannot be carried out. Although it is perhaps safe to say that 60 per cent of the village and rural high schools of the United States have an athletic association and support one or more forms of athletic activity, only a beginning has been made in those schools in developing an adequate system of physical education. The larger proportion of small high schools are not equipped to maintain an efficient health program. "Over 80 per cent of the small high schools of New York have no gymnasium; over 43 per cent have a play area of less than one half acre; over 24 per cent have a play area of less than one-fourth acre; and 5 per cent have no playground space at all."[3]

A study of township and community high schools of Illinois indicates that approximately 40 per cent of the former have gymnasiums in the building; 37 per cent an outside gymnasium; and 23 per cent no gymnasium facilities. Of the community high schools approximately 30 per cent have an indoor gymnasium, 27 per cent an outdoor gymnasium, and 43 per cent no gymnasium. Approximately 17 per cent of the township schools and 19 per cent

[3] E. N. Ferriss, "The Rural High School," *Rural School Survey of New York*, Vol. 7, p. 77.

of the community schools reported an athletic field in connection with the school.[4]

A study of fifty-four representative small four-year high schools in eighteen states showed that seventeen had on the school grounds a football gridiron, twenty-five a baseball diamond, twenty-seven basketball courts, seven a running track, and eight tennis courts. Thirty-two of the fifty-four had no football field at all, twenty-three no baseball diamond, twenty-two no basketball courts, forty-one no running track, and forty-three no tennis courts. The remainder in each case had the use of grounds not connected with the school. Of the fifty-four schools forty-two had no gymnasium.

TABLE VIII.—PROVISIONS FOR ATHLETICS IN FIFTY-FOUR SMALL FOUR-YEAR HIGH SCHOOLS DISTRIBUTED OVER EIGHTEEN STATES

Nature of the Field	On School Grounds	Not on School Grounds	No Facilities
Football field	17	5	32
Baseball diamond	25	6	23
Basketball courts	27	5	22
Track	7	6	41
Tennis courts	8	3	43

Athletics and the aims of secondary education.—All athletics in the secondary school should pertain especially to the subsidiary aims of health, civic, sociability, and recreational efficiency. Unless each athletic activity is operating toward the attainment of the objectives relative to those aims, there is doubt as to its proper functioning in the school. With regard to health it should operate definitely toward the development in the pupils participating of desirable health habits, standards, and ideals through suitable physical exercise and recreation. It should be of a

[4] E. A. Collins, *A Survey of the Township and Community High Schools of Illinois* (1923).

character suited to the pupil's strength, endurance, and needs in the way of physical growth. In relation to recreation, it should serve as an enjoyable means of physical exercise and play and should promote the development of recreational interests of lifelong values. With reference to civic and sociability objectives, it should be one means for the development of habits, standards, and ideals of cooperative effort made concrete through the observance of the rules of the game, fair play, good sportsmanship, and, especially in group games, through teamwork. To gain those ends, emphasis should probably be placed primarily upon the satisfactions coming from the activity itself and from honest endeavor rather than upon winning.

Types of athletics found in small schools.—Data on athletics in the small high school indicate that basketball, baseball, and football are the only games found in the majority of those schools. Track, tennis, and volley ball are supported in a relatively small percentage of such schools. For girls basketball is the most common athletic activity, while track, volley ball, and tennis are engaged in by girls in a few schools. With the exception of volley ball and tennis none of the athletic games to be found in small high schools are suitable for recreational purposes for the average man or woman after school days are over.

The ideal program of secondary-school athletics.—The program of athletics should be such as to afford appropriate physical exercise and recreation to every pupil in the school. The ideal goal would be participation regularly in some appropriate form of athletics on the part of every pupil enrolled. This is far from being realized even in the best high schools. It must be realized, however, if the secondary school is to meet its responsibilities in the way of health and recreational education. The Committee of Fifteen reports that in California "the program of school athletics is reaching only one-fourth of the pupils in the

school."[5] This statement is probably not far from being representative of the country as a whole. In the small high school particularly, almost nothing has been done to encourage suitable athletic activities or to afford opportunity for such activities on the part of high-school girls. Outdoor physical exercise and recreation for girls is especially needed in all small high schools.

Athletics and the individual pupil.—Participation in athletics on the part of any pupil should not at any time go beyond the point where the maximum values with reference to the objectives cited have been realized for him as an individual. The athletic program of the school should be determined on the basis of the sex, the interests, and the maturity of the pupil and as far as possible his probable physical recreational needs as an adult. The major proportion of adults will necessarily find whatever physical recreation they get alone or in small groups. Practically none, even if their physical condition permits, will find it practicable or possible in adult life to assemble enough like-minded individuals to engage in a friendly game of football, baseball, or basketball. Few of them will be prepared to amble around a track in the company of a group of competitively-minded but congenial persons. This should not be taken to mean that the small high school should not encourage those athletic games and contests, but rather that such games should be supplemented by other forms of physical exercise and recreation that will be suitable for the days of adult manhood and womanhood. There is a great need in high schools of developing a program of athletics suited to adolescent boys and girls that will have some reference to the needs of physical recreation in the community and that the individual can still find practicable in adult life.

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[5] "Report of the Committee of Fifteen on Secondary Education in California" (1923), p. 49.

Dangers in the small school.—Athletics in the small high school should be kept on a strictly amateur basis. In some communities much pressure is brought to bear upon those in charge of school athletics to develop winning teams at all costs. Commercial clubs often furnish the football field and the basketball hall and contribute toward the necessary equipment. In itself this is undoubtedly a worthy testimonial of interest in the school. Too frequently, however, community organizations use the influences thus gained to put the town or the community on the map rather than to promote in a legitimate way the athletic activities of the school.

In many sections of the country, athletic leagues are formed to encourage athletics in the small high schools. In so far as this brings together a number of schools in friendly athletic relations, it undoubtedly serves a commendable end. The next step, however, is to discover the championship team of the league and sometimes of the state. The emphasis in athletics in every school is then put upon the building of a winning team. Health needs, and games as means of physical exercise and recreation are lost sight of. The objectives of physical education are often forgotten and too frequently the standards and ideals of good sportsmanship and fair play are cast aside. Under such conditions school athletics probably serve but few useful ends and may be actually harmful to the majority of the pupils participating.

Reorganization of athletics needed in the small secondary school.—To meet the legitimate demands upon athletics in the small high school will require, it would seem, practically a new organization in the light of definite objectives. In the first place, there is need of a system of physical examinations and individual health records. Without these there is no basis for determining individual physical needs or for guiding the pupil into appropriate physical activities and away from those harmful to him.

All pupils should normally be expected to participate in physical exercise and recreation through games suited to their needs. All athletics should be directed by persons responsible to the principal and the school board and acquainted with the aims and objectives of physical education. The athletic activities fostered by the school should be determined with reference to the needs of the pupils and to the physical recreational needs of the community. In addition to the forms of athletics now promoted, types of games and forms of physical recreation should be encouraged which can be engaged in by very small groups and by the individual alone.

Every school should have ample playgrounds and athletic fields in connection with the school. All pupils participating in interschool games should be bona fide pupils of at least nine weeks' standing, except that pupils entering the school directly from contributory elementary or junior high schools should be eligible immediately upon entering the school, provided their scholarship record is satisfactory. While the day when every rural and village high school can have a gymnasium is probably as yet far distant, this should undoubtedly be one of the definite goals in the development of secondary education in small communities.

The assembly in the secondary school.—The high-school assembly is without doubt one of the most important agencies for developing a desirable school spirit and building up school ideals. It affords an opportunity for sympathetic coöperation between pupils and teachers. At the assembly the whole school as a unit can engage in activities appealing to all. It can be made the expression of school democracy, of school citizenship. Probably no other single activity of the school is potentially so replete with educational possibilities as the assembly. For the small high school especially it gives an opportunity for promoting pupil activities of value that cannot be included in the regular program of extraclass activities. It is a possible

means of bringing together school and community. It is an effective instrument for giving pupils practice through concrete situations in leadership and followership in cooperative effort and coöperative government.

The status of the assembly in the small school.—That the values of the assembly are recognized in some measure at least by the large proportion of those in charge of small high schools is evident from existing data. Of 387 small high schools in New York reporting on the assembly for 1921-22, all but 6 per cent held assemblies, as did all but 4 per cent of 363 small high schools representing forty-seven states, replying to the question in 1923. In a group of fifty-four small high schools representing eighteen states and visited by the author in 1923, only six did not hold assemblies. In the major percentage of small high schools, there was an assembly either daily or two or three times a week. The most common length was fifteen to twenty minutes. In general, the larger schools showed a tendency toward an assembly of half an hour or more.

Assembly exercises in small high schools are varied in character but certain features are predominant. The most common feature is school singing. Second in frequency are exercises of a literary character given by the pupils, as speaking, readings, and debates. Instrumental music, either by pupils or by persons from outside the school, is a feature in a relatively large number of schools. A considerable proportion devote a part of the program to devotional exercises as scripture reading, prayer, and the singing of hymns. In some schools one period a week is devoted entirely to devotional exercises.

Other rather common features of the assembly program are: talks by the principal or teachers, talks by outside speakers, discussions of current topics, patriotic exercises, athletic rallies, and dramatics. Less common exercises are: parliamentary practice, physical exercises, pupil business meetings, spelling contests, and programs by the faculty.

TABLE IX.—FREQUENCY OF ASSEMBLIES IN SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS

Source of Information	DAILY		TWO OR THREE A WEEK		WEEKLY		BI-WEEKLY		MONTHLY		IRREGULAR		NONE		NOT REPORTED	
	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent
408 small high schools, 47 states	136	37.5	64	17.6	112	30.9	20	5.5	5	1.4	13	4.0	13	4.0	45	..
387 small high schools of New York	138	35.7	130	33.6	92	23.7	1	0.3	2	0.5	0	0	24	6.2	..	..

TABLE X.—LENGTH OF ASSEMBLY IN MINUTES IN SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS

Source of Information	NUMBER OF MINUTES													
	10		15-20		25-30		40-45		55-60		OVER 60		NOT REPORTED	
	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent	No.	Per Cent
408 small high schools, 47 states	35	10.0	150	42.9	86	24.6	70	20.0	6	1.7	3	0.8	58	..
387 small high schools of New York	52	14.3	243	66.8	61	16.7	8	2.2	..	..	..	..	23	..

Practically all assemblies in the small high school are used by principals and teachers for the making of announcements.

TABLE XI.—NATURE OF ASSEMBLY EXERCISES IN SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS, AND NUMBER OF SCHOOLS REPORTING EACH

Nature of Exercises	Small High Schools, 47 States	Small High Schools of New York
Devotional	117	214
School singing	159	326
Instrumental music	113	10
Current topics	52	18
Talks by principal and teachers	72	51
Outside speakers	70	0
Pupil programs, speaking, readings, debates, etc.	136	214
Dramatics	16	5
Patriotic exercises	17	0
Parliamentary practice	5	0
Physical exercises	8	0
Advertise school activities	18	0
General	45	0

There is much variation in the practice in small high schools with respect to the nature and amount of pupil participation and control in assemblies. In the majority of the New York schools, little or no responsibility for either the planning of the program or for its conduct was placed upon the pupils. In 188 schools the pupils had little or no part in planning or conducting the assembly; in 121 schools they planned, prepared, and presented programs; in thirty-three they made announcements of pupil activities; in eleven they furnished the music; and in fourteen schools they coöperated with the principal and teachers in the management of the assembly.[6] In the forty-eight of the fifty-four schools previously mentioned, having assem-

[6] E. N. Ferriss, "The Rural High School," *Rural School Survey of New York State*, Vol. 7, p. 69.

blies, the principal took complete charge in thirteen schools, principal and teachers in nine, teachers and pupils in twenty-four, and in three schools the pupils assumed almost entire responsibility for the assembly.

In substance the following are statements made by the principals which indicate somewhat in detail the practices in those forty-eight schools. Music and class meetings two days a week; a series of talks on banking by a local banker; the four high-school classes in succession put on a program on Friday. The assembly programs are planned by the student council. Each class is responsible for one assembly a week and the teachers for one. Our two literary societies alternate in a forty-minute program each week, each society being under the direction of a teacher adviser. Different classes in the school are responsible for assembly programs, as the class in civics puts on a mock trial, the history class prepares and presents an historical sketch, the classes in English dramatize and present a literary selection, etc. Each class beginning with the 8A grade is in turn responsible for an assembly program. Pupils put on programs and furnish Bible quotations. Each class is responsible for a program a month. We have devotional exercises on Wednesday of each week conducted in turn by the four pastors of the village. On Thursday each teacher of the school is in turn responsible for a program supplied by her pupils.

In a study [7] of the assembly in 112 Kansas high schools ninety-five principals reported in regard to the person or persons responsible for the assembly programs. "Of ninety-five principals, fifty-three arrange their own assembly programs. Of the remaining forty-two, almost one-half of them serve as chairmen of faculty committees which arrange all programs. In a few instances the student body is represented on these committees. In eleven cases the

[7] Evan E. Evans, "What to do with the High-School Assembly," *School Review*, Vol. 31 (April, 1923), pp. 282-286.

members of the faculty in turn arrange weekly programs. In 20 per cent of the cases, classes, supervised by class sponsors, are responsible for some programs.''

Educational values of the assembly.—The preceding discussion and data indicate in some degree the practices with regard to assemblies in small high schools. It is evident that they have an important place in the activities of these schools. It is also evident that in many such schools the values of the assembly are but partially recognized. Like other extraclass activities, the assembly should assist materially in the efforts of the school toward the building up of habits and ideals of service, coöperation, and social conduct, and in the development of abiding interests, in pupil guidance, and in promoting forms of recreation. Particularly through pupil participation in planning, presenting, and managing programs, the assembly supplements the other extraclass activities and is valuable in developing leadership. It is also one of the best agencies for promoting coöperative school government and giving actual training in school citizenship.

In summarizing it may be said that the assembly is one of the most important features of the small high school and should be given a place in every school's program. Because of its values for the entire school it should have a period a week either at a fixed time or shifting from week to week throughout the school day. It should reflect all interests of the school and should be regarded primarily as a pupil activity. The principal should use it as a means of placing before the pupils matters pertaining to the school and its work and for calling attention to current topics of community, national, and world interest. To teachers it affords opportunity to present to the school as a whole interesting phases of their work, and to give talks on interesting trips taken and places visited. Outside speakers may be used to present topics of general interest or topics bearing upon business, professional life,

and other vocations. Writers, lecturers, readers, and musicians of prominence are often available for assembly programs. Usually they are glad to appear before high schools.

Through the assembly the school as a body can be brought in touch with such special activities of the school as the orchestra, the dramatic club, the debating club, the glee club, and other school organizations, and have interests stimulated. Often the assembly may be used for putting on a campaign promoting school activities, as athletics, a pageant, a school play, or a health program, the officers of the organization represented assuming under the guidance of the faculty adviser entire responsibility for the assembly.

What can be accomplished in fostering a program of extraclass activities in a group of small high schools, the median high-school enrollment of which was eighty-seven, is illustrated in Appendix V. Many features of the program shown were made possible only through a plan of cooperation entered into by the schools of the county.

Problems

1. What educational objectives of the secondary school should to a considerable degree be realized through the extraclass activities of the school?
2. Make an analysis of the duties of a faculty adviser of an extraclass activity.
3. What guiding principles should be set up in making a plan for school athletics?
4. Make a list of desirable extraclass activities that you think would best meet the needs of a particular junior or senior high school.
5. Why are extraclass activities often regarded as extraneous to the educational activities of the high school? What are the fallacies of this view?
6. Outline in considerable detail a plan for conducting high-school assemblies in a small high school.

7. Develop a plan for the organization, direction, and control of extraclass activities in a small high school.

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CHAPTER XVI

THE SOCIAL LIFE OF THE PUPIL

Training in sociability in the secondary school.—In the preceding chapter attention was given to those extraclass activities whose primary function is the furtherance of the pupil's individual cultural and vocational interests, those activities which in a way supplement the classroom activities but under conditions affording the pupil a large amount of individual freedom. In the present chapter brief consideration will be given to those activities primarily social [1] in character. To a certain extent the pupil's social needs are met through the organizations of the first type. Where wisely conducted some of their meetings will be largely or wholly social in nature. In every high school, however, the pupils will have purely social functions, under the guidance of the school if it so wills, but independent of the school if it neglects to provide for them.

"It has been our policy for the past two years to give as few entertainments as possible. We feel that the time of the teacher and pupil is too valuable to be used for any other purpose than to train the child for practice of future citizenship." These sentences are quoted from a recent handbook of a small high school. While they do not represent the typical viewpoint of all principals of small high schools by any means, they are representative of the viewpoint of a relatively large number who still regard the

[1] Since the term *social*, in the narrow sense, is commonly used in connection with those group activities in school and life when sociability is the primary motive, it is so used in this Chapter.

activities directly related to classroom studies as the only ones worth while. They do not interpret preparation for life in terms of living. They represent those who still think of citizenship in terms of knowledge of history, biology, civics, mathematics, etc., rather than as habits, attitudes, standards, and ideals embodied in human behavior. They represent those who fail to understand that life with all its complexities is after all a unit in which vocational, cultural, and social activities are but related phases of the whole. The responsibilities of the secondary school as an educational institution include them all. It should afford training in all of them in as natural a manner as possible, maintaining at all times a proper balance.

Group activity in secondary-school pupils.—Throughout the secondary-school period, group activity is prominent. In the earlier part of the period the tendency seems to be primarily in the direction of separate groupings of boys and girls. In the period represented by the senior high school, interest in the opposite sex becomes more prominent and with it the tendency toward group organizations containing both boys and girls. This grouping for social purposes characterizes the secondary-school period. If the small high school is to meet at all fully its educational responsibilities, it must afford opportunities for social life under guidance. In the senior school especially it should provide opportunity for social activities where both sexes come together for entertainment, recreation, and sociability.

Results of failure to provide for social life in the secondary school.—Where the school fails to provide for the social life of its pupils, they inevitably seek avenues for satisfying these needs outside the school and often along lines antagonistic both to the work of the school and the good of the pupils. The desire of youth for fellowship and sociability is normal and will not be denied. Without guidance it frequently finds satisfaction in undesirable directions. Exclusive clubs and cliques tend to develop

making undue demands upon their members both in time and energy, and often in money. Social habits and ideals frequently deteriorate. The interests of the school and the interests of the various pupil groups become divorced. As a result, in many cases, the discipline of the school is undermined, unity of effort between faculty and pupils destroyed, and the educational achievements of the school impaired.

Social needs of pupils in small communities.—In small village and rural high schools, particularly the latter, attention to the pupil's social needs is of special importance. In a large proportion of small communities the opportunities afforded high-school boys and girls for sociability outside the school are extremely limited. Often the social affairs open to them are but little supervised and are sometimes very undesirable in character. Because of the social lacks or deficiencies of the community, the small high school often has an unusual opportunity to promote and guide sociability among its pupils and to give them much needed social training. Through social functions fostered by the school, in which the teachers participate, and the nature and conduct of which their influence as sympathetic advisers has in large measure determined, the small school has valuable educational possibilities. With careful guidance these activities may become the means of developing in the pupil ease and confidence in making social contacts, habits and standards of courtesy, and the various social conventions.

Provision for social life of pupils in small high schools.—In 1923 the writer visited fifty-four small four-year high schools in eighteen different states. One of the questions asked each principal was the extent to which the school directed the social life of its pupils. Of the fifty-four schools, eleven gave no attention to the social activities of their pupils other than through the extraclass activities of type one. The remaining forty-three schools gave more

TABLE XII.—EXTRACLASS EVENTS HELD AT 144 CONSOLIDATED RURAL SCHOOLS (1920-21)

Nature of Event	LOUISIANA			ALABAMA			MISSISSIPPI		
	Number of Schools	Per Cent	Number of Events	Number of Schools	Per Cent	Number of Events	Number of Schools	Per Cent	Number of Events
School fairs	6	10.3	6	11	23.9	11	9	22.5	10
Boys' and girls' clubs	16	27.6	165	23	50.0	188	15	37.5	94
Community dances	10	17.2	25	5	10.9	24	1	2.5	4
Athletics, games	23	39.7	230	19	41.3	90	16	40.0	64
Literary society	19	32.7	237	16	34.3	124	15	37.5	158
Box suppers, etc.	13	22.4	32	21	45.6	35	14	35.0	37
Lyceum courses	8	13.7	26				3	7.5	8
School plays and entertainments	14	24.1	42	15	32.6	29	5	12.5	15
Boy Scouts	2	3.4	33						
Pageants	1	1.7	1						
Moving pictures	3	5.1	26						
Church	2	3.4	18	3	6.5	28	1	2.5	30
Sunday school	2	3.4	18	1	2.2	25			
Singing and public lectures							5	12.5	13

or less attention to the encouragement, guidance, and control of the pupils' social affairs. The number of social functions in those schools varied from one to twelve a year with four to eight representing the more common practice.

The nature of the social activities in the schools referred to is indicated by the following: school parties under the advisership and chaperonage of teachers; school play followed by a social hour; social meetings under the direction of the parent-teacher association; holiday programs; an operetta; class parties; school and class picnics; school banquet; junior hike; school entertainments to raise money for school equipment; a school promenade the evening following commencement; an evening assembly; and games and dancing following a school supper.

The following statements by principals reflect the different attitudes taken with regard to the social life of pupils in small high schools: "We have none, I object to them." "The school has done but little in this direction." "Several social affairs each year but the principal has taken no oversight or direction of them." "We have one school mixer a semester." "Each class gives a party a semester; all school functions are given on Friday and Saturday evenings." "Each class may have not to exceed two social functions a semester; the principal schedules all social affairs." "A Junior-Senior club has charge of all general social school events; it has dishes, a serving room, and a kitchen."

A study [2] of 144 consolidated rural schools of Louisiana, Alabama, and Mississippi gives some interesting data for the school year 1920-21 with reference to the promotion of both types of extraclass activities in those schools. While

[2] A. W. Hayes, "The Community Value of the Consolidated Rural School," Research Bulletin No. 2, (February, 1923), Tulane University, pp. 37-38. The data given are arranged and selected from Hayes's report, activities not pertaining to pupils being omitted.

not all of the schools had high-school departments, the data are probably fairly indicative of what is being done in consolidated rural high schools.

To say that the small high schools in general have given comparatively little attention to the social life of their pupils would seem to be a conservative statement. In many such schools no attempt has been made to give pupils training for social life as such. In a relatively large proportion very little guidance is given to, or control exercised over, pupils' social activities. In a small percentage of small high schools, a fairly wide variety of social activities is afforded the pupils under a well organized system of guidance and control. The problem of the pupils' social life is one that the small school must solve if it is to perform its function in the most effective manner.

Responsibility of small secondary school relative to pupils' social life.—One of the problems of the high school in the small community is to encourage in the school social activities in which the community is lacking or deficient. In many rural communities there is very limited opportunity for boys and girls of high-school age to form desirable habits and standards of sociability. The school is in a position, in part at least, to meet this need. In many villages and towns also similar deficiencies exist. For example, in a small railroad and agricultural town in a western state, the high-school boys had made a public pool hall their social headquarters largely because no other place was available where they might come together in a social way. Both boys and girls patronized a public dance hall that was conducted along very undesirable lines. The principal and teachers of the high school in coöperation with a parents' club launched a campaign to counteract those institutions. Athletics was given special attention and through the railroad Y. M. C. A. high-school boys were given the use of the swimming pool and the gymnasium

an hour and a half three evenings a week. They were also granted the privilege of using the games in the recreation rooms. At the school a dance for pupils only was given twice a month in the large assembly room. To give space for dancing the assembly seats and desks were put upon movable bases. The dances were managed by pupil committees under the advisership of the teacher of English, a woman of experience and much respected by the pupils of the school. Each dance was chaperoned by members of the parents' club. The effect of this program upon school work and spirit and upon the social habits of the pupils was very beneficial.

The social activities of the school and the local community.—In guiding the program of social activities for a high school, the faculty needs to be acquainted with the community. Every community has certain traditions, customs, ideals, and often, prejudices, that must be considered. Some of these are often so strong that the school cannot afford to run counter to them. In some schools, for example, it would be inadvisable to promote school dancing because of the large element in the community opposed to it.

In all schools a democratic atmosphere should be maintained and the forming of exclusive groups and cliques discouraged. Desirable simplicity in dress, refreshments, etc., should be firmly insisted upon, and the cost to pupils should be kept at the minimum. All social affairs should be in large measure managed by the pupils but with a member of the faculty acting as adviser. If possible the faculty adviser should be a person of sympathy, tact, and experience, and one who understands adolescent boys and girls. Usually in a small high school it is advisable to place immediate responsibility for the social activities of the school definitely upon the shoulders of one member of the staff. Ordinarily this person should be a woman. Of course it is to be understood that the principal should

at all times take an active interest in all pupil activities, social as well as the others.

Coöperation rather than competition between school and community.—In communities where there is much done in the way of providing desirable social life for boys and girls of high-school age, it may be advisable for the school to keep its program within conservative limits. It cannot give up its social life entirely and perform its educational functions. It should, however, not act in competition with the home and community. Especially should the school not do anything to separate the pupil from the social atmosphere of the home. To do the most for the youth of the community, and at the same time maintain a desirable balance in his interests, it is necessary that home, school, and community should each provide opportunities for sociability. Their efforts, however, should be complementary and not competitive. In order that the pupil's social life may not be unduly emphasized, sympathetic coöperation of all the agencies concerned is essential.

Adapting social activities to adolescent boys and girls.—Care should always be taken that the forms of entertainment at all parties are appropriate for boys and girls and of sufficient variety to interest all present. Naturalness and spontaneity should always be prominent features of the social affairs, dependence being placed upon suggestion rather than upon restraint for their control. The teachers participating should in themselves exemplify the standards of conduct and the social conventions which the school desires the pupils to accept and observe.

Ordinarily school social affairs should be held on either Friday or Saturday. When given on one of these days they do not unduly interrupt the regular daily work of the school. In the junior high school practically all such events should probably be held in the afternoon. In the senior high school both afternoon and evening

functions are probably desirable. All evening functions, however, should begin and close at seasonable hours. In small high schools with both the junior and senior divisions, the social events for the junior school should in general be separate from those of the senior school.

The parent-teacher association and the school's social life.—In small communities the parent-teacher association can do much to help the faculty in providing for the social life of the school. A parent-teacher committee on high-school social affairs coöperating with the school can do much to assist the adviser both in the way of suggestions and in sharing the responsibility of guidance and chaperonage. In some communities, through the coöperation of the parent-teacher association, all community affairs in which pupils participate are held on either Friday or Saturday, thus freeing pupils from many distracting influences during the school week. In other communities the parents supply the chaperones for all social affairs. In still others the parent-teacher association entertains during the year each of the high-school classes and the faculty. In practically all small communities, community and school should work together in the training of pupils for social life.

Training in sociability in the secondary school of the future.—As those in charge of secondary education in small communities come to see fully the implications of the high school as a social institution aiming to promote the development of each boy and girl in the direction of individual and social efficiency through living, they will give increasing attention to the sociability phase of education. Training in sociability will be provided for proportionate to its importance in the life of each normal individual. Opportunity for participation in social activities will be afforded even at the sacrifice of some of the regular classroom work.

Even with its limited staff the small high school with the coöperation of the parent-teacher association or some

similar community organization will have a comprehensive, carefully thought-out plan for the encouragement, guidance, and general control of the occasional school social activities. The initiative for such activities will rest primarily upon the pupils as will also the planning of the details as to the program, etc., but teachers will always act as advisers. Such affairs will be democratic in character, will be modest in cost, and will emphasize good sense and good taste in dress and hours. They will be under the chaperonage of the school and the parents and will be given at times best harmonizing with the other activities of the school. They will be appropriate to the social needs of adolescent boys and girls and will promote the forming of desirable social habits, tastes, standards, and ideals.

Problems

1. What is the relation of the social life of the high school to the aims of secondary education given by Inglis, the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education, or as discussed in Chapter IV?
2. List with reference to a particular community some of the desirable habits, attitudes, and standards of social conduct that the social activities of the pupils in the school might aid in developing.
3. Make a study of a high school with reference to the social activities that should be guided and controlled by the school.
4. Outline a program of social activities suitable for a small high school.
5. How may the high school and the community coöperate in the promotion of desirable social activities for the boys and girls of secondary-school age?

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PART V

GENERAL PROBLEMS

CHAPTER XVII

SOME ADMINISTRATIVE PROBLEMS OF SECONDARY EDUCATION IN SMALL COMMUNITIES

It is the purpose of the present chapter to present in a brief manner certain problems, chiefly from the administrative angle, that seem outstanding in the development of secondary education in small communities. To give the supporting data in each case would necessitate going beyond the limits of this volume. The references for further reading will furnish, however, for those interested, much in the way of concrete data on the problems discussed.

The most inclusive administrative problem.—From the administrative standpoint, the all-inclusive problem of secondary education in small communities is, it would seem, that of providing every normal adolescent in such communities educational opportunities suited to his abilities and needs. It is a problem of providing not only education that will promote social efficiency in the narrower sense but also individuality or self-realization. The quality of education afforded should be commensurate with that given in the best secondary schools. According to the variant capacities, aptitudes, interests, and life purposes of the pupil population of a modern secondary school and the differing needs of communities, there must be flexibility in programs of studies, courses of study, extraclass activities, and the organization of different schools if all adolescent children are to enjoy, in any measure, equal educational opportunities. The efficiency of secondary education in small communities is not alone to be measured by the fitness of those who are graduated for pursuing

their formal education further. It is to be measured rather by the proportion of the children of secondary-school age in the community who are in regular attendance, the extent to which they are retained in school, the educational progress they make, and their fitness when they leave the school for engaging intelligently and coöperatively in the activities of life. It should be measured also by the extent to which it is available to all without demanding any special burdens in the way of expense.

Other important problems.—One of the specific problems growing out of the inclusive problem stated above is to place free secondary-school facilities in reach of all adolescents. A closely related problem is to make those facilities adequate. A third is to provide secondary education with reasonable economy; and a fourth is to make the road from elementary to secondary education continuous and free from unnecessary obstacles. Much progress has been made in the last few years in making secondary schools accessible to all children of secondary-school age. In many sections of the country much is still to be done, particularly in the way of putting all children on an equal footing so far as enjoying secondary-school facilities on equal terms is concerned. Every normal child should be within a secondary-school district, including ultimately a junior college, where the road is open without meeting undue obstacles to a course of education suited to his ability, interests, and needs.

The problem of centralization.—Experience has shown that extremely small high schools cannot afford either adequately or economically secondary education of desirable variety and quality. Especially in the upper years the facilities ordinarily available in the smaller high schools are likely to be inadequate or else furnished at a relatively high cost per pupil. While it will be necessary, probably for a long time to come, to maintain in some parts of the country some two- and three-teacher high schools, in a

large majority of sections better educational facilities might be afforded by increased centralization of secondary education. With larger schools, a larger staff of instructors, better equipment, better curriculum content and organization, and better teaching are made practicable. With the resulting elimination of extremely small classes and less duplication in instructional equipment as library, laboratory and shop, better results for money spent should be realized. To place secondary education within reach of every boy and girl in rural and village communities must continue to be one of the objectives in the development of education in this country. Of equal importance, however, is a program of centralization so far as possible for bringing together pupils in sufficient numbers to make practicable teaching staffs, buildings and equipment, and curriculums of the range and variety required by modern secondary education.

With improved transportation it has become practicable to convey secondary-school pupils greater distances than was formerly possible. With the junior-high-school organization, also, many communities will be in position to offer three or four years of secondary-school work beginning with the sixth or seventh years that under the seven- or eight-four type of organization could not maintain a high school. Many other small communities now maintaining a very small three- or four-year high school should find it more satisfactory in every way to maintain a junior high school, sending the older pupils to a central senior high school for the last two or three years of their course where better facilities can be afforded. These developments if effected should result in improved secondary-school opportunities for all children in small communities.

Larger units of secondary-school administration.—To bring about such centralization of secondary education will require in most parts of the country larger units of secondary-school administration than are ordinarily found at

the present time. This will be necessary so that the work in all the schools of a related group can be coördinated at all stages and also form with the contributory elementary schools a continuous educational system. The entire centralized secondary-school district should be a unit for local financial support, for provisions for transportation of pupils, and for supervision of instruction.

Secondary education accessible to every child.—To make secondary education accessible to all children on terms at all equal will require in many parts of the country a definite plan of forming secondary-school districts so that every child is included. No child should be without an open road to a secondary school that he is free to attend under conditions which do not place upon either him or parents special financial burdens. In many rural communities particularly, this goal has not as yet been realized. "Those who follow a basic vocation like farming should not be penalized in their efforts to provide adequate schools for their children because of the conditions under which the vocation must be conducted. The state as a whole should be an agent in the removal of such barriers, and the expense of transportation should be borne by it rather than by the local communities in which the consolidations are made."[1]

Equalizing the burden of support.—At the present time, in the majority of states the major burden of support for secondary education is borne by the local community. All studies of school finance show that this results in imposing upon different communities very unequal burdens. Different communities vary widely in the wealth back of each secondary-school pupil. Some can support excellent high-school facilities easily while, on the other hand, for many communities to maintain only the semblance of modern secondary education places upon them an exces-

[1] G. A. Works, *Texas Educational Survey Report*, Vol. 8 (1925), p. 251.

sive financial burden. At best, in smaller communities, if secondary-school opportunities in any way commensurate with those afforded by large schools are to be maintained, the per pupil cost will be relatively high. To equalize the burden of support of secondary education requires, it would seem, important changes from present practice. In the first place, the proportion of local support must become less. In the second place, both the intermediate school unit, as the county for example, and the state must contribute a much larger proportion of the funds necessary for providing secondary education.

The need of improved methods of standardization.—There is great need of better methods of standardization of secondary education in small communities. In general, present means and methods of standardization stress unduly uniformity both in subjects studied and in quality and quantity of achievement. Standardization should not destroy, in programs of studies, in curriculum organization, in content of courses of study, or in quality and quantity of achievement, the flexibility desirable in meeting differences in local needs or in the abilities of pupils. In the second place, state plans of standardization should not operate against the successful progress of pupils by requiring them to meet, through state examinations or other means, uniform standards of achievement. Especially should this not be done when the state permits the pupils of the small high schools to be taught by instructors of less training than is demanded of teachers in large high schools, and under conditions where inadequate library, laboratory, and other special types of instructional equipment are provided. Such means of standardization place the burden primarily upon the pupil in the small high school, who has ordinarily no choice in the school he is to attend. More unsound even than uniform standards of achievement is the plan of standardizing small high schools by setting up a uniform curriculum or a large number

of fixed subjects required for graduation, especially when these subjects are based upon the entrance requirements of the higher institutions of the state. Usually such subjects are the least valuable of all to the pupil who goes directly from high school into his life work.

Standardization in terms of objectives.—It would seem that a sound plan of standardizing secondary education in small secondary schools should be along some such lines as the following. There should be scientific studies made to determine from time to time a group of common objectives pertaining to command of the vernacular, integration, health, etc., desirable as goals in the education of all adolescents according to capacities for achievement because of their values in the participation of life activities. In the light of these objectives certain subjects, or parts of subjects, constant in all secondary-school curriculums should be determined upon. These constants pertaining to health and to local, state, and national citizenship should become the only absolute requirements for receiving a diploma recognized by the state. Beyond these requirements each local high school, or group of coöperating high schools, would be relatively free to develop curriculums to meet the needs of its pupil population. No school, however, should be permitted to offer a program beyond what it can handle successfully with the equipment it has in the way of teaching staff and other facilities.

Standardization through requirements for teaching.—In the majority of states persons are permitted to teach in the smaller high schools with less academic and professional training than is required for teachers in schools in larger centers. This is an unsound practice if the goal in secondary education is to provide equal educational opportunities for pupils or to have small schools offer a quality of instruction (within the range possible for small schools) comparable to that of large urban high schools. In other words, if the educational opportunities of boys

and girls in rural and village communities are to be in any measure commensurate with those of children in larger centers with respect to the quality of instruction received, instruction in the smaller schools must be given by men and women of similar training. While this state of affairs, desirable as it is, cannot be realized at once, no other policy can be justified ultimately. The minimum requirements in the way of general training and professional preparation must be made the same for all secondary schools of a state. To carry out such a policy will require salaries in small high schools comparable to those in larger centers and with definite provision for recognition of professional growth and successful teaching experience. Comparable rewards are essential to comparable service. These would tend undoubtedly to increase the tenure of service in small secondary schools where the average at the present time is exceedingly short.

The problem of state courses of studies.—One of the most important problems of the small secondary school grows out of the desirability of adapting the organization and content of the various subjects in the program of studies to the experience background and needs of the pupils in different communities. The practice of uniform courses of study in all subjects for a state has hampered such adaptation. This has been true not only in academic subjects but in vocational subjects, although the need of adaptation in the latter has been more clearly recognized. To permit of desirable flexibility, state courses of study should offer a broad outline of the possible content based upon the most recent developments of secondary education and upon the major objectives of secondary education to which that subject is pertinent. It should be designed to suggest and guide in the formulation of courses of study for particular schools rather than to serve as the actual working course in itself. A prominent feature of each course of study should undoubtedly be a clear statement of

the accepted principles underlying the selection and organization of content and of the most approved methods of presentation. Selected references should be indicated for the guidance of the teacher in his further study of the pedagogical problems of the subject. For small high schools, particularly, suggestive lists of supplementary readings, sources, and educational materials suitable for pupils of high-school age should be very helpful. Ultimately, it would seem, the courses of study actually used in such schools should be worked out coöperatively by groups of teachers and principals, assisted by state officials and others, representing the secondary schools of a particular section of the country where conditions and needs are fairly similar. These should fill out in detail the broad suggestive outlines of the state and should be based upon careful studies of the interests and needs of the pupils concerned and of the communities in which they live. Even in the constant subjects, flexibility should be permitted in so far as different subject-matter content and organization may be used in the attainment of the common objectives set up.

Continuity in the educational progress of rural and village children.—To afford, to a greater degree than at present found in the majority of rural and village communities, a continuity in the educational progress of children from the elementary school into and through the secondary school is a problem pressing for solution. The junior high school with its provisions for exploration, discovery and testing of abilities, aptitudes, and interests and its gradually increasing opportunities for differentiation should follow closely upon the work of the elementary school. In turn the senior high school with its curriculums largely differentiated should join closely with the work of the junior high school. No distinct break between the three stages of education should exist because of abrupt changes in method, subject matter, or standards; nor should lack

of continuity be emphasized through the existence of special examination hurdles to be cleared in passing from one stage to the next. The educational progress of the child should be continuous. The aim throughout should be the promotion of individual and social efficiency and the work at each stage should be determined by the needs of the pupil and the demands of his social environment according to his fitness for meeting them. To pave the way for the realization of continuity in elementary and secondary education, and to direct the necessary work of reorganization, is largely the task and the opportunity of those administering education in rural and village communities.

Requirements for graduation in the small secondary school.—All available data on the state and local requirements for graduation from rural and village high schools indicate that those requirements tend to be largely in terms of subjects required for entrance to higher institutions of learning. In other words, the requirements for graduation tend to make of the small high school a highly selective institution rather than one designed to meet the educational needs of all children of secondary-school age. The requirements are in major part based upon the needs of a special group of pupils.

Requirements for graduation from a secondary school should be, it would seem, more functional in nature. They should be determined more definitely with reference to common existing social and individual needs. Requirements based upon the needs of special groups of pupils, for example, those planning to enter college, should be special requirements and should be required only of those pupils pursuing the curriculum or curriculums designed to meet such special needs. More emphasis should be placed upon the development of individuality than is possible under present practices. The requirements for graduation might better be placed upon the following bases: (*a*) Each pupil should meet the minimal requirements in

curriculum constants. These constants should be determined upon the basis of the common demands upon individuals in their participation in the everyday activities of American life. They should have reference to the knowledge, habits, abilities, attitudes, and ideals most desirable in them as citizens no matter what particular course in life they may follow. (*b*) Beyond the constants suggested above, the requirements for graduation for each pupil should be in terms of the subjects composing a curriculum designed to meet his interests and purposes and should be such as to ensure, (1) a reasonable degree of concentration and continuity of educational experiences, and (2) a desirable breadth.

Conclusion.—In conclusion, the administrative problem with reference to the requirements for graduation from the secondary school is to set up such requirements as shall promote, in so far as is desirable, by the end of the secondary-school period an intelligent, coöperative citizenship, good health, and the development of a desirable individuality. If we are to have a genuinely democratic system of secondary education in rural and village communities, first of all it should insure that each child receives the essentials of education for democracy, and, second, it should permit of sufficient flexibility to meet the individual needs of pupils as indicated by their abilities, aptitudes, interests, and purposes. All curriculums designed to meet the needs of different groups of pupils should be regarded as of equal educational worth and dignity, and should lead, when the required number of units of credit are gained, to a diploma of graduation recognized by the school and the state.

Problems

1. Compare the requirements for graduation set up by several different states. What is the nature of these requirements and wherein do they differ?

2. Study several high-school districts in regard to the differences in the burden of maintaining secondary education. What seem to be the factors operating to cause whatever differences are found?

3. Make a careful study of a county or portion of a county with reference to the feasibility of developing an improved secondary-school organization.

4. Should work of a certain quality be required for a high-school diploma? If so, what should determine the quality required, should it be the quality promising successful achievement in college work? If a single standard of quality should not be set up as the minimum, should different diplomas be granted for different qualities of achievement?

5. Upon what bases should the requirements for graduation from the senior high school be determined? from the four-year high school?

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CHAPTER XVIII

SUPERVISION OF INSTRUCTION AND GROWTH OF TEACHERS IN SERVICE

The importance of supervision of instruction.—The character of the classroom instruction is one of the basic factors determining the efficiency of the secondary school. Unless the activities of the classroom are such as to promote not only the attainment of the objectives particularly pertaining to the subject taught, but also those guiding the work of the school as a whole, the best results cannot be realized. In the high school with departmental teaching, there is likely to develop lack of harmony with respect to certain ends commonly desirable. There must, if such conflicts are to be avoided, be unity of effort as well as effective instruction in the teaching of the various subjects offered in the program of the school. Supervision is essential to the promotion of both these aspects of the work.

Sources of supervision in the small high school.—Quite generally throughout the country the supervision of teaching in rural and village high schools comes from three main sources: (1) the local principal or superintendent; (2) the county superintendent or some corresponding administrative officer; and (3) the state high-school supervisor or inspector. In a few states, as in Massachusetts, there is a "supervising principal" for all the schools of a town or township. For vocational work in agriculture, home-making, and industry, there are in all states special vocational supervisors. As yet these supervisors come in contact ordinarily with only the stronger rural and village

high schools and then only with the teachers of those special subjects.

Supervision by state and county.—Supervision by the state supervisor or his assistants is always infrequent and usually is little more than inspection. In most states, at best, it consists of not more than one supervisory visit to the school during the school year. In the larger rural and village high schools where vocational agriculture and home-making have been established, supervision of this work by special state supervisors is usually more frequent and analytical than is possible for the other phases of secondary education. In some states, Ohio for example, where the county has been well developed both as an administrative and as a supervisory unit, the superintendent or his assistants supervise more or less closely the instruction in the smaller high schools. In the larger schools the local principal is largely responsible for the supervision of instruction in his school. In the majority of states, however, the supervisory visits of officers representing the county, or similar intermediate administrative unit, are not more frequent than three to six a year. In practice the supervisory activities of those officers seem to be directed largely to the instruction in the elementary school, leaving the direct responsibility for secondary-school instruction in large measure to the local principal.

Local supervision.—An analysis of the distribution of the principal's duties in small high schools throughout the country indicates that, in general, but little time is used for the supervision of instruction. For 354 small high schools representing forty-seven states, the median amount of time that the principal devoted to classroom supervision was approximately twenty-five minutes a day. For 380 small high schools of New York in places under 4.500 population, it was fifteen minutes a day, and for sixty small high schools of California enrolling fewer than 150 high-school pupils, it was approximately forty minutes a day.

TABLE XIII.—TIME GIVEN BY PRINCIPAL TO SUPERVISION OF HIGH-SCHOOL TEACHING

Number of Minutes a Day	354 Small High Schools of United States	380 Small High Schools of New York	60 Small High Schools of California[1]
0—29	150	258	
21—40	101	70	
41—60	54	32	
61—80	20	12	
81—100	13	7	
101—120	12	1	
Over 120	4	0	
Total number of schools.	354	380	60
Approximate median	25	15	40
Middle 50 per cent	15-45	10-30	20-65

[1] Rolland R. John, "The Principal's Load," *School Review*, Vol. 31 (December, 1923), pp. 748-55.

The need of supervision in the small secondary school. —All available data on supervision of classroom instruction in small high schools indicate that here is one of the serious problems of secondary education in rural and village communities. With the relatively large proportion of inexperienced teachers and of teachers new to the community each year the need of close, constructive supervision is greater than it is in the larger urban high schools. Such supervision can only be given by a person intimately acquainted with each instructor's work and the conditions under which that work is being done. If the responsibility for supervision and the improvement of instruction is to rest upon the local principals, it is evident that, in a large percentage of small high schools, they must have more time for supervision than is available to them at present. It will also require that they have training in supervision beyond that possessed by a considerable proportion of them. This training should have special bearing upon the problems to be met in the small school. They must understand not only the purpose but the technic of supervision.

Qualifications of supervisor of secondary-school instruction.—Not to enter into the question of desirable personal qualifications, to be qualified to supervise teaching in the secondary school, a person must have a broad education and, in addition, a thorough training in professional subjects basic to his activities as a supervisor. Among the professional subjects, the following at least should be included: psychology and its applications to problems of learning and teaching, the psychology of adolescence, educational measurements, methods of secondary-school teaching, supervision, principles of curriculum-making, educational sociology, and the principles or philosophy of secondary education. He should by all means be a successful teacher in at least one field of secondary-school instruction. Above all, he should be interested in, and keep himself informed about, current literature on secondary-school teaching and the most recent developments in secondary education.

The nature of supervision.—Supervision should be constructive. The supervisor should evaluate instruction with reference to objectives definitely set up and known both to the supervisor and the teacher. He should take into account the capacities and previous school experience of the pupils. Through careful analysis of the classroom activities based upon the most accurate data, he can assemble, through class visitation, standard tests, local tests, and samples of work done, he should determine both the weak and the strong features of the work being done by each teacher. Through helpful criticism, suggestions as to improvements in method, subject-matter selection and organization, and classroom control, followed by suggestions as to helpful literature on problems confronting the teacher, he should work with and through the teachers toward the improvement of the instruction in the school.

The aim of supervision.—The aim of supervision is to make the school more efficient, especially through the im-

provement of instruction; to give the pupil the most favorable environment possible for development in the direction of the aims of secondary education. The supervision of instruction is concerned primarily with improving the work of individual teachers through the analysis and evaluation of their work and through personal conferences. Thus the teacher should be helped to use better methods and means of instruction and be encouraged and stimulated in the development of a professional interest in his teaching problems and a professional attitude toward them.

The fundamental problems of supervision are those of helping each teacher to become as efficient as possible and of making available to him the best facilities in the way of equipment, courses of study, and instructional materials. The ultimate success of supervision depends upon the extent to which teachers and supervisors work coöperatively for the realization of common ends. The value of the conferences following supervision of instruction will be determined in a large measure by the amount of definite data the supervisor has relative to the classroom work and the care with which he has worked out his suggestions and procedure for the conferences with the teachers. Above all he must have the confidence of the teachers. Ordinarily he should concentrate upon one or two important items at a time. He should in his supervision use some definite outline so that he has in time complete data on every phase of the work done by each teacher.

Problems of supervision.—In the small high school the work of the supervisor is primarily with individual teachers and with reference to the problems pertaining to the teaching of their particular subjects. These problems will differ to a large extent in different schools. Some may be suggested which are quite generally worthy of attention.

1. The major objectives toward the attainment of which the subject under consideration should contribute and what it should contribute.

2. In the light of the pupils' maturity and experience and community needs, the determination of the specific or working objectives guiding the daily activities of the classroom, and desirable standards both as to quantity and quality of work to be done.
3. The analysis of the course of study with the view of determining the important units, items that may be given comparatively little attention or entirely eliminated, desirable organization about major problems, topics, or projects and problems, and community resources that should be utilized.
4. Trying out and evaluating new textbooks of promise.
5. Determining the status and progress of pupils through use of standard tests, etc.
6. Desirable ways and means of meeting individual differences among pupils with respect to ability, interests, and purposes.
7. Methods of teaching and study, and experimentation with new methods and devices.
8. Amount and nature of home and library work desirable.
9. The technic of supervised study with reference to the teacher's special subjects.
10. Desirable characteristics of a good assignment, etc.

Supervision and unity of effort.—A second phase of the supervisor's work in the secondary school is that of promoting coöperation among the various teachers. It is concerned with the unification of the educational activities of the school relative to the subsidiary aims of secondary education and those major objectives for the attainment of which all are mutually responsible. A few of the ways in which the supervisor may promote coöperation and unity of effort may be suggested as follows:

1. Faculty discussion of the aims of secondary education and what the school is doing and might do toward recognizing them as the goals for its educational activities.
2. Setting up the objectives that should guide each teacher in his classroom work and as adviser of school activities in the development of desirable habits, standards, and ideals of conduct, service, coöperative activity, etc.
3. Desirable characteristics that should be developed in all

pupils as open-mindedness, initiative, intellectual honesty, regular habits of work, habits of thoroughness, etc., and what can be done to promote their development.

4. Discussion of problems of teaching and government common to all and formulating plans for solving them.
5. Studies, reports, and discussions of resources or lacks in the community and their bearing upon the activities of the school.
6. Consideration of the values and technic of supervised study.
7. Study of the problems of notebook work, home study, systems of marking, etc.
8. Reports and discussions of current articles on secondary-school problems and developments.

Objectives of supervision.—In carrying out the two phases of his work, and as a guide to his activities, the supervisor may well keep before him some such objectives as:

1. To give teachers confidence in themselves through a shown appreciation of the value of their work, recognition of their successes.
2. To develop a professional attitude and spirit in each teacher through sympathetic coöperation and a sane enthusiasm for teaching as a profession.
3. To stimulate each teacher to professional thinking, to suggesting better means and methods of teaching.
4. To give recognition to worth-while suggestions and credit for them.
5. To be prepared to suggest, in connection with all supervisory follow-up conferences, helpful discussions in professional literature.
6. To stimulate each teacher to do professional reading and study by referring to articles and other materials pertinent to the problems at hand.
7. To evaluate each teacher on the basis of a careful, critical analysis of all phases of his work.
8. To make of each teacher the most efficient instructor possible.

Teachers' meetings in small high schools.—One means of improving instruction, effecting unity of effort, and promoting the growth of professional interest is the teach-

ers' meeting. With the exception of some of the smaller schools the staffs of most rural and village high schools come together at more or less regular intervals to discuss school problems of general concern. The most common practice seems to be one or two such meetings a month. In some states regular teachers' meetings are required.

A study of the nature and time of teachers' meetings in fifty-four small four-year high schools in eighteen different states yielded some facts with respect to the practices in those schools that may probably be regarded as fairly typical. In forty cases the principals had no regular time set for the meetings but called them at irregular intervals throughout the year as they deemed desirable. In the other fourteen schools there was a regular time scheduled for teachers' meetings.

In very few of the schools was any definite program for the term or year planned in advance. Problems of method, discipline, attendance, scholarship, and other questions of immediate interest were taken up and discussed as the daily work of the school offered them. In one instance the meetings for the year were devoted in part to the discussion and study from various angles of intelligence and achievement tests for high-school pupils. In another school the principal invited certain teachers to read articles or books related to their work or that of the school as a whole and to lead in the discussion of the main topics considered. One principal had a meeting once a month of teachers and school-board members at which the problems of the school were discussed in an informal manner. In two cases all the teachers of the county met once a month for a general conference in the forenoon. In the afternoon the high-school instructors came together in a separate group for the consideration of topics and problems related to high-school work.

The reports on teachers' meetings of 360 small high schools of New York showed that in seventy-eight of the

schools no meetings were held and that the most common practice in the other schools was one meeting a month. The following quotation gives the topics taken up in the order of frequency as reported: "The outstanding problems discussed were . . . pupil discipline, attendance and tardiness, retarded pupils, securing the interest of pupils in classroom work, and maintaining the pupils' continuous effort. Other frequently mentioned problems were home study, classroom management and methods, improving scholarship of pupils, the selection of text-books, promotion, and pupils' marks. Topics less often reported as the problems for discussion in high-school teachers' meetings were: supervised study, extraclassroom activities, the use of standardized tests in high-school work, silent reading, the making of an assignment, the daily program, pupils' health, how to study, . . . uses of the question in teaching, and character building."[1]

The individual conference.—Practically all principals of small high schools follow the plan of individual conferences with the teachers as a method of keeping in touch with the work in the school and of assisting teachers in their problems of teaching and discipline. In many of the smaller schools these conferences take the place of regular teachers' meetings.

Professional reading.—Reading of professional literature in current books and journals by instructors in rural and village high schools is comparatively limited. Of 410 small high schools distributed throughout the country only 22 per cent reported teachers' reading circles or reading clubs. For 72 per cent of the schools the principals reported that the teachers read professional journals and magazines. Approximately 20 per cent of the principals reported no reading of current professional literature. Of the 348 small high schools of New York reporting on the

[1] E. N. Ferriss, "The Rural High School," *Rural School Survey of New York State*, Vol. 7, p. 54.

item, only 7 per cent had reading circles. Slightly over 40 per cent of the principals reporting and 43 per cent of the teachers had read no professional magazines and journals during the year (1921-22). Thirty-one per cent of the principals and 49 per cent of the teachers reported the reading of no professional books during the year.

Other means of growth in service.—Some of the other means of growth in service of teachers and principals of small high schools are summer schools, extension courses, correspondence study, state and county conventions and institutes, discussions in parent-teacher-association meetings, and school visiting. Of 359 principals of small high schools throughout the country replying to these items, approximately 53 per cent reported that none of their teachers had employed any of these means within a year. Nineteen per cent reported county or state institutes; 12 per cent reported summer-school attendance; 8 per cent extension courses; 2 per cent correspondence-study courses; and 2 per cent discussions in parent-teacher meetings. Six per cent reported school visiting.

TABLE XIV.—VARIOUS MEANS OF PROFESSIONAL IMPROVEMENT OF TEACHERS AS REPORTED BY 359 PRINCIPALS OF SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS (1923)

Means Employed	Number of Schools	Per Cent
None	190	53
State and county conventions and institutes	70	19
Summer schools	42	12
Extension courses	29	8
School visiting	21	6
Correspondence courses	7	2
Discussions in parent-teacher associations	7	2

Encouragement of professional growth in small high schools.—All available data on supervision, teachers' meetings, professional reading, professional training while

in service, and school visiting indicate that the teachers in rural and village high schools have relatively little encouragement and stimulation for professional growth. The supervisory visits of state and county supervisors are usually so infrequent as to make impossible any intensive or accurate analysis of the teacher's classroom work as a basis for sympathetic, constructive suggestions looking toward improvement of a specific character. What little the average principal can do with his heavy demands in teaching, clerical work, and general administrative duties is necessarily of the pop-in and -out variety following usually no definite plan as to objectives or procedure. Teachers' meetings are seldom given over to any continued, exhaustive study and discussion of definite major problems of secondary education. Professional libraries are not ordinarily available and opportunities for the observation of other teachers at work in the classroom are rare. If the instruction in the small high schools of this country is to improve as it should, it would seem that greater opportunities for professional growth must be given the teachers in those schools.

Suggestions for improving supervision of instruction.—From the standpoint of supervision of teaching there seem to be several possible ways of improving the present conditions. In the larger schools, especially where both junior and senior high schools are in the same building, the principal should be relieved of part of the teaching load he carries at present. In such schools, also, it would be economical, from the standpoint of the effectiveness of the school, to employ a full-time or at least a half-time clerk to handle the routine work of the office. This should give the principal at least two periods a day for classroom supervision and follow-up conferences with teachers. In schools of eight to twelve teachers, this would make available from two to three hours a month for the supervision of each instructor's work and still leave adequate time for

organizing and evaluating results and for planning and holding conferences.

With the development of a central senior or junior-senior high school with a number of contributory junior schools, a probable development in many sections of the country, another plan seems feasible. A principal in the central school well trained in the technic of supervision and ordinarily with not to exceed five periods of teaching a week would become the supervisor of instruction in the contributory schools. In most instances this would probably mean the supervision of from fifteen to twenty-five teachers. The same type of organization would be practicable for groups of four or five neighboring high schools of the four-year type where the communities concerned could coöperate in the employment of a person trained in supervisory work to perform this function for all the schools and act as principal of one of them.

In sections of the country where the county, or some similar district, is the intermediate administrative school unit, one or more supervisors of high-school teaching might well serve the needs of all the schools in that administrative district. The particular type of supervisory organization most feasible will depend upon the number of teachers and the closeness of the grouping of high schools. Some plan giving more adequate supervision of the instruction in rural and village high schools than is commonly given at the present time is necessary if the teaching in those schools is to be comparable to that of urban high schools and if teachers in the smaller schools are to be stimulated to desirable professional growth.

The importance of teachers' meetings.—Because of their importance in connection with problems of internal organization and administration and their relation to supervisory questions, teachers' meetings are essential. In all, except possibly the smallest schools, they are necessary as a means of bringing about and maintaining unity of effort

and a spirit of coöperation among teachers. They may become an important agency in promoting professional growth in service if some time is devoted each meeting to the earnest consideration of vital educational questions. These meetings should be professional in character, should follow out a consistent program carefully planned with reference to the teachers' needs and interests, and should give each teacher opportunity to participate in discussions and to make individual contributions in the way of reports and studies. Earlier in the chapter, in connection with the supervisor's work in effecting unity of effort, some broad problems were suggested that may be regarded as indicating in a general manner the sort of questions that might be profitably considered in teachers' meetings for a period of a term or year.

The teacher in the city high school cannot easily escape, if he would, opportunities for professional improvement. There are frequent general meetings for high-school instructors and, in addition, special meetings for teachers of the different subjects. Every teacher has a chance frequently to discuss with others teaching the same subjects their common problems. There is also the stimulation for professional growth that comes from competition. Finally, sources for professional reading and study are usually easily accessible.

Overcoming professional isolation of teachers in small high schools.—The teachers in the small high school in the rural and village community are commonly more or less isolated professionally. Often the only sources for professional study are their own limited professional libraries and, perhaps, for each a journal pertaining to the work in his major field. They do not have the stimulation coming from competition. They have practically no opportunity to discuss with others teaching the same subjects questions of method, motivation, selection and organization of teaching materials, and the many other

problems having a particular bearing upon the work they are doing. Often, too, the number of teachers in the school is too small to make the local teachers' meetings as vital and interesting as they would be where numbers were greater.

There is undoubtedly a great need for meetings of teachers of small high schools where enough are present to make profitable some sustained study of vital problems of modern secondary education and where teachers may discuss, even though informally, their problems with others engaged in similar types of work. These meetings should not be less frequent than one a month. They should be based upon programs in the making of which the teachers have had representation and for the success of which teachers have a share of the responsibility. The programs should be in the hands of the teachers at least a month before the meeting and should suggest books and articles bearing upon the topics to be discussed. The meetings should be at some center easily accessible to all teachers expected to attend and transportation to and from the meetings should be provided for. Where one or another of the plans previously suggested for supervisory units is in operation this unit might well become the unit from which high-school teachers would attend the meetings. Such a plan would tend to develop a professional spirit, coöperation, and unity of effort among all the schools of the group.

The professional library.—Teachers' meetings cannot be most effective unless all teachers have access to a professional library provided with a representative selection of books on education and current educational magazines and journals. The teachers' private sources are, even at best, insufficient. In many small high schools it is impossible to maintain a professional library sufficiently extensive, though every high school should have such a library, the best it can afford. To meet this need a professional library

should be built up at the central school of the supervisory unit. From this library every teacher in the district should be privileged to draw a book or journal for a reasonable length of time. Each school in the supervisory unit should have a card catalog of the books and periodicals available. The writer looks back with grateful appreciation to the professional library of approximately 300 well selected professional books and five professional magazines in the superintendent's office in the town where he went as a high-school principal without experience. In that library were found suggestions for the solution of many serious problems.

School visitation and professional growth.—Almost every teacher can profit by observing the classroom methods and devices of others who have been successful in teaching the subjects in which he is interested. The teacher in the small high school at present rarely has this opportunity. For the relatively inexperienced teacher the observation of good teaching in another high school is especially helpful. It also has value for the teacher of experience who has perhaps developed his methods and teaching devices largely by himself and has as a result often fallen into certain stereotyped points of view and practices. Opportunities for the observation of teaching in other schools, especially for inexperienced teachers, should be much more frequent than they are in rural and village high schools at present. These observations should be carefully planned and guided. Principals likewise would often receive many useful hints by studying the administration and organization of schools other than their own. Two or three days a year spent in observing the work, studying the organization, and discussing with other principals their administrative and supervisory problems, and methods of solving those problems, would be of great value to them in directing the activities of their own schools.

Problems

1. From reading done, set up tentatively as a basis for discussion five or more principles that you think are fundamental to all good supervision.
2. From the standpoint of a supervisor, outline the things that you would hope to accomplish through supervision.
3. From the standpoint of a teacher, outline in some detail the service one might reasonably expect to be rendered through supervision.
4. Develop as definitely as possible five to ten important factors in the technic of classroom observation.
5. What has been the nature of the high-school teachers' meetings with which you have come in contact? How might they have been made more worth while? Develop a suggestive plan for a year's program of meetings.
6. Develop an outline guide to be used by the supervisor in checking up items gained in classroom observation.
7. Develop in considerable detail a plan for the use of standardized and other tests in supervision and the improvement of instruction.

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CHAPTER XIX

COÖPERATION BETWEEN SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY

Mutual understanding essential to support.—Any institution, if it is to function effectively, must be understood and actively supported by those it is intended to serve. In theory the secondary school is an institution established, maintained, and in a large measure controlled by a community for the education of its youth. It is supported largely by funds supplied by the community in which it is situated. It should be open to all children of the community who have completed the work of the elementary school and those overage children whose educational needs are such as to be best met in the secondary school. It should be adapted primarily to the needs of its pupil population and the significant educational needs of the community.

The school as a community enterprise.—The secondary school with the elementary school is the community's one great coöperative enterprise through which it in large part develops its future citizens and lays the foundation of its future progress. In many small communities neither the community as a whole nor those directly responsible for the administration and direction of the high school have grasped in their fullness the implications of the preceding statements. In some instances the principal alone assumes the responsibility for the success of the school, often with very little definite acquaintance with the community. In other instances the principal and his board attempt to carry through a very commendable educational program, apparently expecting or receiving little assistance from

school patrons or the community at large, and frequently in the face of their active opposition. In a relatively few cases school board, principal, teachers, pupils, and the community as a whole are actively and wholeheartedly endeavoring to make of their high school a genuine community enterprise.

Only when all are interested in the school and active in the promotion of its work can it perform its task well and make the progress it should. It seems sound to start with the principle that the people of a community will not support permanently or well, however able they may be to do so, any project the aims or values of which they do not understand. They will not adequately support an enterprise except as they are satisfied that the results are worth while.

The problem of winning public support.—One of the problems of principals of small high schools is that of winning the support and coöperation of the public. In spite of this fact, many of them have no definite plan for winning desirable support for secondary education in their community by helping it to understand the work of the school. There is a feeling on the part of some that to advertise education is compromising its dignity and that to encourage discussion of school problems by patrons and others is only paving the way to interference and trouble. Others take the view that secondary education should succeed because of its importance in a democratic society and that it should not need to display or explain its wares. The majority of principals of small high schools are convinced, however, of the desirability of keeping the work and needs of the school at all times before the public though they are often at a loss as to the means to be used.

The needs of a growing institution.—If the high school is to be kept modern, it must be modified as better forms of organization, government, methods of teaching, and types of curriculums are found. It must expand to meet

new needs as they appear. The community must understand and be in sympathy with important changes in the school if the school is to prosper. The principal by virtue of his position must in the majority of communities accept the responsibility of educational leadership. He should use every legitimate means of educating his public with respect to the aims and needs of modern secondary education by explaining significant changes within the school, putting before it the policies of the school, and acquainting it with the service the school is endeavoring to render and what it hopes to do in the future. He should explain the conditions under which the present work is being carried on and make clear the needs of the school if the plans for improvement are to be realized.

The need of coöperative effort.—The task of keeping the community informed as to the work of the school and of educating it with regard to desirable changes or expansions is greater than principal and teachers alone can accomplish. It requires the coöperation of board, pupils, and community organizations. Coöperation in the task has several advantages, one being that it tends to develop leaders in the community capable of assuming a large share in the work of keeping the public informed and of building up a favorable public opinion. The success of those directly in charge of the high school in carrying out their plans will in a large measure depend upon the number of active lieutenants they have in the community. People are interested in the success of an enterprise when they are doing something to make it a success.

The principal and community organizations.—The principal of the small high school, for the success of the school, needs to come in touch with the various representative organizations of his community. Through these organizations he can spread information as to the services and needs of the school. Through them he has an opportunity to become acquainted with community leaders and can at

appropriate times discuss various phases of the school's work and its major problems. These contacts are especially worth while when extensions of the program of the school are contemplated. The support of these organizations is essential particularly in the matter of introducing vocational departments. Often for many people in small communities vocational education in the high school represents a very radical step. They do not understand. This calls for a period of discussion and community education. Because of failure on the part of those directly responsible to educate the community beforehand, vocational departments have frequently failed after a year or two. School patrons did not understand their purpose and as a result did not support them. Vocational departments, as well as other important extensions in the school's program, succeed best where a legitimate desire for them has first been aroused through public realization of their values in meeting educational needs in the community.

Classes of organizations actively interested in the school.—One indication of the understanding the community has of its high school is to be found in the active interest manifested by the various community organizations in the promotion of the school's activities. These organizations may be classified roughly into two groups. The first is composed of those organizations established definitely to aid the school by coöperating with it in solving its problems. They may be either local, state-wide, or national as the Coöperative Education Association of Virginia, the Parent-Teacher Association, the School Improvement League, the Home and School Club, the Women's Coöperative Club, the Community Playground Association, and others.

The second group of organizations is made up of those whose primary purpose is the promotion of community interests other than those of the school but which give more or less attention to school problems. Examples of

this group are the Grange, the Farm and Home Bureaus, and the Business Men's Association. They are all agencies through which the interests of the school may be legitimately promoted. Frequently in them the school has its most loyal and active supporters. In the leaders of such organizations the principal and board should find many of their leaders for assisting them in promoting desirable programs of secondary-school improvement.

Organizations coöperating with the small high school.—Studies on community coöperation with the small high school through different organizations indicate that slightly more than one-third of such schools have parent-teacher associations, school improvement associations, etc., through which teachers and patrons act together primarily for the welfare of the school. Of the second group of organizations the Grange is apparently most active in coöperating with the school, showing an active interest in 5 to 10 per cent of the small high schools. In New York for 1920-21, 14 per cent of the principals of small high schools mentioned the Grange as actively interesting itself in the work of the school. The Farm and Home Bureaus also give it considerable attention. Other organizations active in the interests of the school in a relatively small proportion of small high schools are the chambers of commerce, business men's associations, the Rotary Club, Kiwanis, the Red Cross, the community civic league, and various women's clubs.

The work of the Parent-Teacher Association.—The organizations in the small community are working for the welfare of the high school in numerous and varied ways. The Parent-Teacher Association, the organization active in a larger percentage of school communities than any other, functions most usefully, in the opinion of principals, in keeping the school and its needs before the community. In other words, it is recognized by principals as an agent especially valuable in educating the public

TABLE XV.—COMMUNITY ORGANIZATIONS COÖPERATING WITH THE SMALL HIGH SCHOOL

Name of the Organization	410 Small High Schools of United States	392 Small High Schools of New York
Parent-Teacher Association	134	76
School Improvement Association, Patron's League, and Community Club, Council, or League	27	20
Mothers' Club, Women's Club, Ladies' Circle, D. A. R., Guild, W. C. T. U.	19	21
Grange	23	55
Farm bureau	12	
Home bureau	7	11
Men's Club, Chamber of Commerce, Business Men's Association, Marketing Association, Rotary Club	13	
Ladies' Literary Club, Dramatic Club, Study Club	4	
Civic Club	6	
Community Nurse and Red Cross	8	3
Community Playground Association	4	
High-School Alumni Association	5	4
Other organizations	10	5

with respect to the program of the school and in winning support for that program. Its second most widely recognized function seems to be the development of better understanding between teachers and parents and coöperation in their common task of furthering the education of the children of the community.

Some of the more specific ways in which parent-teacher associations aid the small high school are: leading in the campaign for improving school sanitation, beautification of school grounds and classrooms, maintaining health clinics, promoting better school attendance, providing playground equipment, providing laboratory equipment and books for the library, taking charge of high-school lunches, equipping the school with first-aid supplies, visiting the

school, helping to build a community school spirit, managing a lyceum course, promoting high-school activities, assisting in the management and direction of the social life of the high school and furnishing chaperonage for pupils' social affairs, leading in the campaign for removing distracting influences from pupils during the school week, and in finding suitable rooms and boarding places for the teachers.

The work of other organizations.—The other community organizations coöperating with the small high school show their interest in many ways. The following are some specific examples: improving the school playground and providing equipment, supplying the high school with equipment for athletics, purchasing an athletic field, giving prizes for school exhibits and school fairs, furnishing equipment for the work in agriculture and household arts, promoting winter short courses in agriculture and homemaking, establishing school health examinations and maintaining a school nurse, giving programs and entertainments for pupils and teachers, endowing the school library, providing scholarships, giving free trips to the state fair, purchasing pictures for classrooms and auditorium, managing and financing lyceum courses, assisting in carrying out a program of vocational guidance, and furnishing a free hall for school and community meetings.

Utilizing the services of community organizations.—While the beneficial results of community coöperation with the high school are to be seen in many schools throughout the country in the way of material equipment, school spirit, and a sympathetic understanding existing between teachers and parents, such coöperation makes demands upon the principal. If he has plans for the school well formulated, he can make of these organizations valuable allies. To utilize their services effectively he must be able through suggestions as to needs, and ways of meeting them, guide and direct community effort. Particularly is this neces-

sary for the successful functioning of a parent-teacher association or other similar organizations primarily devoted to school improvement. Miss Perry in a study [1] offers some suggestions that should prove helpful to principals and teachers of small high schools in coöperating with community organizations. While the study was made with reference to the rural elementary school, the principles apply equally to the small high school. To quote in substance:

The home and school must through some type of organization unite their thinking in order to:

1. Decide upon a program of action in accordance with the needs to be met
2. Find out resources needed to carry out program
3. Determine resources at hand that can be utilized
4. Determine best methods of procedure
5. Apportion work wisely to different groups

There is need of understanding local problems and a long time program for their solution. Social responsibility demands a school environment that makes adequate provisions for genuine social activity by affording opportunities for practicing social virtues. . . . After understanding by home and school organizations of the objectives to be attained they must make an analysis of the community to determine:

1. To what extent conditions exist in accord with school objectives
2. Resources at hand in usable form
3. Resources at hand but which must be released for utilization
4. Essentials for attainment of school objectives the community lacks

To follow out a program such as suggested would mean sympathetic coöperative effort of community and teachers in making an analysis of the high school and its work and aims and of the needs and resources of the community as a whole. The results of this analysis would supply the

[1] Dora C. Perry, "The Place of Home and School Coöperative Organizations in the Attainment of Rural School Objectives," Master's Thesis, Rural Education Department, Cornell University, 1924.

problems indicating the direction which the activities of the organization or organizations should take.

School publicity.—One of the valuable results of community coöperation in the solution of the educational problems of the high school, as has been indicated, is an informed public. A better understanding between school and community necessarily follows such coöperation. Some intelligent appreciation of the needs of the school, however, must precede such coöperative effort. This calls for the use of other means of publicity.

Means of publicity used in small high schools.—Available data indicate that those in charge of small high schools have done comparatively little directly in the way of publicity. The three agencies most commonly employed are the local newspaper, the school bulletin or catalog, and school programs and entertainments. Of 410 principals of small high schools distributed over the United States, practically 58 per cent used the local newspaper to put before the community information relative to the school. Eighteen per cent used the high-school bulletin or catalog, and 10 per cent employed school programs and entertainments. Among other means mentioned by relatively small numbers of principals were: community gatherings, school exhibits, circular letters, athletics, patron's days, public bulletin board, the Parent-Teacher Association, school fairs and plays, the high-school paper, and community clubs.

All information on community coöperation and publicity in connection with high schools serving small communities, indicates that both are comparatively undeveloped. While in the case of a few schools definite plans have been worked out and are being followed by principals and school boards, in the larger proportion of small schools, but little is being done to build up in the communities an understanding and appreciation of the work of the school in any organized manner.

TABLE XVI.—INFORMATIONAL AGENCIES USED BY 410 SMALL HIGH SCHOOLS.

Agencies Used	*Number of Schools*
Local newspaper	237
School bulletin or catalog	73
School programs and entertainments	41
Public gatherings and community clubs	28
School exhibits	17
Circular letters	16
Athletics	12
Patron's days	10
Bulletin board, notices, and posters in post office, etc.	10
School fairs and plays	10
Parent-Teacher Association	9
Moving pictures	9
School paper	7
County tournaments	7
Lyceum courses	7
Social activities	6
Talks to pupils of rural schools	3
School annual	3
Town report	1
Other agencies	19

Suggested means of publicity.—For the good of both the school and the youth of small communities there is need of a public better informed about the nature, purposes, results, and values of secondary education. This information should be continuous and should emphasize the regular activities of the school rather than the special or occasional features, though the latter should not be neglected. Through the Parent-Teacher Association, patron's days, or visiting days, should be encouraged. During these, parents and others should be given an opportunity to see the school in action. They should present in so far as possible the pupils engaged in the regular activities of the school. In connection with the visiting day or separately, as circumstances make desirable, exhibits of school work should be made.

An exhibit of the work of the school is one of the most easily managed and most effective ways of bringing the work of the school before the patrons and developing an understanding of that work. It should include, however, all phases of work and the mediocre as well as that of exceptional merit. It should be representative of the regular achievement of the school. Too frequently school exhibits emphasize only special phases or examples that are not typical. They should represent a cross section of the school. In connection with the exhibit the pupils may put on a special program representative of the school's extraclass activities. In this way a fairly complete picture of secondary-school life is left in the minds of the visitors.

While these occasional exhibits, programs, etc., are valuable in developing understanding on the part of the community, they are not sufficient. They should be supplemented by other agencies. Where there is a local newspaper it should be used regularly for the distribution of information about the school. The monthly school circular, either printed or mimeographed, and giving in a clear, interesting manner a review of the month's activities and plans for the immediate future, serves to keep school and community in intimate touch with one another. In the larger schools the school paper may serve this function in part by devoting a portion of its space to such materials.

Conclusion.—Finally, all legitimate means should be employed by those in charge of the small high school to build up mutual understanding and coöperation between school and community. Such understanding and coöperation operate in the direction of better secondary-school opportunities for the children of the community and are essential to the development of an effective high school. Problems of attendance and discipline sometimes loom large in small high schools. They are frequently due to an uninteresting, traditional type of education in the

school and can be solved in part by an internal reorganization. Often they are due to lack of common understanding between parents and teachers and consequent failure on the part of the former to coördinate their efforts with those of the school. The attainment of its objectives by the small high school demands the intelligent coöperation of all forces of the community.

Problems

1. Make an analysis of the advantages and dangers of the high-school principal and teachers' use of the various organizations of the community as agencies through which to build up intelligent support of the school's program.
2. Develop in some detail a plan for keeping school patrons and the community as a whole informed with regard to the work and needs of the high school.
3. With reference to a particular small high school outline a program for the Parent-Teacher Association. In what manner should this program be developed in actual practice?
4. How might those in charge of the small high school through the pupils develop a better community understanding of modern secondary education and in a measure ensure intelligent support for the future?

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CHAPTER XX

THE HIGH SCHOOL AND THE ADULT

The broader relationships of the small high school.—In the preceding chapter the relationships between the school and the community were discussed from the angle of the ways in which the various forces in the community are being utilized to promote the work of the school. In the present chapter attention is given especially to the service the school can render the community over and above that it gives to the pupils in regular attendance. It seems certain that the future development of secondary education in rural and village communities will not be limited to providing better educational opportunities for children of secondary-school age, but will include the needs of adults as well. Its work will be determined by a much broader philosophy of secondary education than that in which the high school is conceived of as "an academic institution intended to prepare a small group of students for advanced courses or for professions in the community." It will be concerned in a broad and vital way with the life of the community as a whole.

The primary responsibility of the secondary school.—The primary responsibility of the secondary school is the education of youth. This must include all youth. Whatever extensions it undertakes must not interfere with this purpose. However, for the country as a whole, at the present time, approximately only one out of three of the children of secondary-school age are regularly enrolled in high schools. The larger proportion of those not enrolled are engaged in some occupational activity. It is desirable

that this great body of youth in every community should continue as far as possible definite educational contacts. The high school cannot provide the best educational opportunities for youth except as its work is definitely related to, and influences, the life of the entire community. The fact that the high school is the one educational institution whose activities are representative of the various life activities and accessible to most rural and village communities, should make it the natural center for the education both of youth and of adults. This should be especially true of the senior high school.

Vocational courses for adults.—Vocational courses for boys and girls who have left school to go to work have already found a place in many of the larger rural and village high schools. In some, courses for adults are offered. Usually, both for boys and girls and for adults, this work is given through short unit courses the content of which is selected to meet more or less definitely certain rather specific occupational needs of the groups enrolled. Such courses are the natural result of the entrance of vocational work into the programs of small high schools and should undoubtedly become more common than they are at present. Where based upon the actual vocational needs of those working in local occupations, these courses have undoubtedly had beneficial effects upon the vocational courses for pupils regularly enrolled in the school. Valuable as they are, short courses in vocational studies are not sufficient to meet the demands of most communities. The school should also provide opportunity for boys and girls who cannot attend full-time to attend part-time and to profit from any phase of secondary-school work offered. This would make it possible for many boys and girls to pursue a high-school course and at the same time to earn a living or help support the family.

Liberal education for the adult.—The development of vocational courses in the small high school represents only

one aspect of the educational service it should ultimately render the adults of the community. As the small high school bases all its work more and more directly upon life activities, as it undoubtedly should, it will be in a position to render a wider service to the adult population. Many of the senior high schools should afford adults opportunities to pursue courses in science, history, economics, government, English language, and literature. Where possible, courses in art, music, education, health, etc., should be made available. All these courses should be organized with reference to the interests and needs of the adults of the community and should help such persons to keep alive their educational interests and to deepen and broaden their understanding and appreciation of life in its various aspects and relationships. In many of the stronger rural and village high schools evening classes should be organized to meet such community needs. In some communities, also, it may be desirable to offer courses during a part of the summer when the regular school is in recess. This would mean the employment of teachers for a twelve-months period, a practice in many ways desirable.

The secondary school as the intellectual center.—In addition to the types of work mentioned in the preceding paragraphs, the high school should probably in more informal ways become the intellectual center of the community it serves. Through lectures on interesting phases of science, literature, economics, art, etc., it should do much to keep the adults of the community informed as to recent developments and contributions in those several fields. In part these lectures might well be given by the regular high-school staff and have valuable influence upon the regular work of the school. The high school should also be the center for lectures, readings, musical programs, and other educational offerings by persons from outside the community. The moving picture should often be utilized

by the school in giving at small cost to those attending intimate glimpses of modern travel, art, transportation, industry, and current events.

A coördinating agent of educational activities in the community.— Many organizations and institutions are carrying on at the present time educational work in practically all rural and village communities. Oftentimes there is a great deal of wasteful duplication which might be avoided by the recognition of some center for the educational activities in the community. The high school is the logical center for all or the major part of the legitimate educational work in a community. The other agencies, in most instances, it would seem, should act through and in coöperation with the local high school. While the work of these agencies would ordinarily be more extensive from the standpoint of the territory included than any high-school district, the use of the high school as the center would in most cases simplify the organization necessary. It would also operate in the direction of building up closer, more intimate relations between school and community. Examples are the work carried on in health education and the various types of extension work promoted by state colleges of agriculture and home-making, and state universities. With these higher educational institutions supplying the personnel for giving the technical, scientific, and vocational information that they alone possess but operating through and in coöperation with the local high school, the educational results as a whole might be more economically and effectively realized than at present. In the junior high schools, junior club work should be carried on through the school and with definite relation to the prevocational activities of the school.

A community center.—The rural and village high schools have great opportunities in stimulating civic, sociability, esthetic, and recreational interests, and in raising the standards of such activities in their communities. They should

have auditoriums of sufficient size, conveniently arranged and equipped, so that community gatherings and activities can be accommodated. Community choruses, orchestras, and bands should find in the school a place to rehearse and hold public programs. Literary clubs, civic clubs, health clubs, vocational clubs and institutes, and the many other community organizations of an intellectual, esthetic, or recreational character should find at the local high school a convenient center for the promotion of their interests. In so far as possible members of the high-school staff should identify themselves with these activities either as members or as leaders.

Helping the community through regular school activities.—As regular secondary-school courses, especially in health, science, and social science become more functional and utilize community resources, and as work in agriculture and home-making develops, the rural and village high schools will be in a position to give their communities help through their regular school activities. This is not to be interpreted as meaning that high schools are to become research institutions. Rather, it means that in teaching boys and girls through materials related to life activities and particularly through materials related to or drawn from local sources, it will as a result get products valuable to the community as a whole by merely disseminating those results. It should not work for such products except as the work involved represents the most effective educational experiences for the pupils concerned. The point may be illustrated by referring to the work of the Fergus County High School, Lewistown, Montana, as shown in a letter to the people of the community by the principal.[1]

The Fergus County High School is your institution. In it are trained the boys and girls of the county, and a large number

[1] "A High School as a Community Center," *School Review*, Vol. 29 (January, 1921), pp. 6-7.

of adults, both men and women, attend also. For those of you who cannot attend we want to call your attention to some of the assistance this institution offers to individuals, to schools, and to whole communities.

The high school is a clearing-house for the needs of the community. It will analyze ore, water, soil, food. It will test milk for butter fat, seed for germination, soil for moisture, and cloth for adulteration; furnish instruction in cheese-and-butter making; identify weeds and poisonous plants; give information on crops and marketing, and help organize coöperative enterprises; assist in vaccination of stock, planning of barns, and furnish information on all agricultural subjects.

It will send out circulating libraries, bulletins of all kinds, lists of books, magazines, and advice on suitable reading material for the home on various subjects; help to plan programs, games of all kinds, pageants, and plays; furnish constitutions for community-center organizations, and send out material for all these activities.

It will help plan and furnish cost estimates for farm buildings and typical houses, furnish information on income tax, land, bin and hay-stack measurements, compute interest, and help you with any mathematical calculation.

It will figure sizes of pulleys, line shafts, pump jacks, emery wheels, and feed grinds, and assist you with your automobile and tractor troubles.

It will plan labor and home-saving devices for you, furnish aid in farm and household accounting, public statements, make out balance sheets, and do multigraphing and typewriting work.

It will help in planning the interior arrangement and decorating of the home, furnish recipes, menus, health suggestions, dress patterns, and will do hemstitching work.

Your institution wants to be of service to the community. Won't you give us a chance? If we can be of assistance in any way write for further information.

Through pupil programs open to the public the small high school has an opportunity not only to develop community interest in the school but to extend in a considerable degree its educational influence. General school programs, public recitals of the school chorus, glee clubs, orchestra, school debates, and plays by the dramatic club have their

educational values for the adults of the community. In this connection should be mentioned also the school exhibit and the school fair.

The school library and the community.—In its library the rural or village high school has the possibility of developing one of its most important educational services to the adults of the community. In a large proportion of small communities no library facilities are offered. In many others there is only a poorly equipped village library open to the public but two or three days a week. If in all such communities the high school were made the library center, with a school library open to high-school pupils and to the public and in charge of a trained librarian giving all his time to the library and library instruction in the school, better and more economical service might be rendered both school and community.

The library should contain as complete a representation as possible of books on all phases of human affairs. It should emphasize especially the modern contributions to progress. It should have a well selected and representative list of current periodicals and newspapers. Special attention should be given to bulletins and pamphlets dealing with civic, economic, general social, and occupational questions. The local high-school library should particularly become the center where is kept all information put out by state and national bureaus and departments on questions and problems of the day. It should contain also complete files of the publications issued by the state colleges of agriculture and mechanical arts, home-making schools, and state universities. In this way it could make accessible to the local community the most recent information in applied science and art and become a valuable agent in the dissemination of useful knowledge. Finally, the rural or village high school should regard the development of its library as not only one of the most important steps to be taken in improving the educational opportuni-

ties of its pupils but as one of the most practicable and effective means of rendering an educational service to the adults of the community.

A new conception of secondary education.—For the small high school to extend its activities in the directions indicated in this chapter means in many schools the acceptance of a new conception of the work of secondary education in rural and village communities. It means a secondary education based upon life activities of to-day and the needs of the many rather than those of special groups. If the small high school is to realize fully its opportunities, it must become the educational center for the entire community it serves. In no other way can it meet the educational needs of a democracy. That it will accept this wider conception of its responsibilities is already definitely indicated by the programs of educational service being carried on by many rural and village high schools throughout the country.

Problems

1. To what extent and in what ways is it desirable for the small high school to become the educational center of the community?

2. Make a study of a rural or village high-school community with the purpose of discovering the types of service the school might render in affording adults opportunity for further needed or desired education.

3. What can the rural or village high school do for its community through its library?

4. What might your local high school do to promote the intellectual, esthetic, and vocational interests of adult members of the community? What added facilities would the school require to make such service possible?

5. Make an analysis of the educational activities carried on in a rural or village community by agencies other than the school. To what extent might these be better coördinated if the high school were to act as the coördinating center? What would be the probable advantages and disadvantages to the school?

6. Prepare a report on: How some small high schools serve the adults of their communities.

7. Develop a practicable plan of adult education for a small high school.

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CHAPTER XXI

LIFE ACTIVITIES AND NEEDS IN RURAL AND VILLAGE COMMUNITIES AND THEIR EDUCATIONAL IMPLICATIONS

Former comparative simplicity of rural life.—Little more than a century ago life in the rural community was comparatively simple. Its relationships with other communities and the world at large were relatively few and indirect. Practically all the work of farming was done by man power with few and simple tools. Because of distances and the slowness of communication and transportation each household was necessarily in a large measure an economic unit. Its simple needs of food, shelter, and clothing were supplied mainly by the industry of its own members. Where coöperative effort was required, it was limited usually to the neighborhood. A few persons somewhat more skillful than their neighbors in carpentry, blacksmithing, milling, nursing, etc., met the needs for specialization. In the main, all sociability and recreational needs were satisfied in the activities of the neighborhood. The individual was relatively independent of general social, economic, and political changes.

Changes that have come about.—To-day rural life presents an entirely different picture. While it may still be characterized as relatively simple and undifferentiated in contrast with the complex, highly specialized life of large urban centers, it has been completely transformed. No longer is the farm family self-sufficient, producing the major part of what it consumes. No longer are its needs for coöperation bounded by the neighborhood or community. The farmer's occupational activities are not rep-

resented to-day by what he and the members of his household can do by hand labor with crude tools upon cheap land of virgin fertility. He is still independent and individualistic as compared with the average city dweller, but he is no longer relatively little affected by social, economic, and political upheavals in the world about him.

Machinery has taken the place of hand and muscle in performing the major portion of farm work, increasing greatly the amount that one man can accomplish in a working day and releasing the family from much of the heavy drudgery formerly required. It is estimated that in the production of nine major crops the use of machinery has saved 79 per cent of the man labor once required.[1] To-day the farmer produces grain, livestock, and other agricultural products not alone to supply the wants of himself and household but for the markets of the nation and the world. To supply his wants as a consumer he draws upon the resources of all countries. Practically all the industries that were once carried on in the home or in the neighboring village have been transferred to manufacturing centers. The farmer raises a surplus of raw products, often of a highly specialized kind, for profit, in order that he may buy other goods to supply his needs. His capital invested is relatively large and his products frequently marketed in keen competition with those from other parts of this country or of the world. He is directly concerned with important social, economic, and political changes both in this country and the nations of the world.

Economic importance of agriculture.—Agriculture represents one of the most important as well as one of the largest economic groups. It furnishes the raw materials upon which a large proportion of the industries of the country depend. In 1920 approximately 49 per cent of the population of the country came under the classification

[1] T. N. Carver, *Selected Readings in Rural Economics* (Ginn, 1916), p. 52.

rural. Subtracting the population of villages leaves about 40 per cent of the total population as agricultural. The value of farm property represents in the neighborhood of one-fourth of the total wealth. In general this rural wealth is more evenly distributed than is the wealth of any other occupational group. Although in some sections the percentage of tenancy runs over fifty, throughout the country as a whole over 60 per cent of the farmers own their farms.

Farming as a vocation.—As a vocation farming demands for its successful pursuit a wider knowledge, more initiative, resourcefulness, and adaptability than is required of the average successful worker in most other fields. The farmer faces not only the uncertain problems of markets and transportation, but the more uncontrollable elements of weather, rainfall, and insect pests. Usually he is not only a laborer, but a capitalist as well. He must possess both managerial ability and technical skill. With the narrowing margin between production and consumption the world looks to him not only to preserve the productivity of the soil entrusted to him, but to improve its fertility. He must be both a business man and a practical scientist; his work has become a profession. His calling requires special training as well as a long apprenticeship for mastering the diversity of technical skills. "To be a scientific farmer requires an education comparable in breadth and thoroughness with that of the engineer or the physician, and probably much more thorough than that of the lawyer or the preacher."[2]

The body of scientific facts now available pertaining to agriculture is greater than any one individual can master and is rapidly growing. The practical farmer needs as wide and thorough acquaintance with the principles of scientific agriculture as possible, and at the same time he

[2] T. N. Carver, *Elements of Rural Economics* (Ginn, 1924), p. 89.

needs to know how and where to obtain additional information and advice when occasion demands. The technical phases of his calling are built upon the applications of the physical and biological sciences.

The managerial side of his occupation demands foresight and careful planning. With high priced land and expensive machinery, and the usual narrow margin between gross income and expenditures, success depends upon accurate knowledge of the factors involved. He needs among other things to know his markets and the problems of transportation. He needs to know the possibilities of his soil, the adaptations he can make in the way of crops or livestock, the size of farm that will bring the highest net returns, and the most effective ways of handling it, not to mention a host of other major problems. Meeting many of these problems intelligently requires a thorough knowledge of the principles of economics.

While the farmer works with nature and his success depends primarily upon his knowledge of and adaptation to physical things, under present conditions his contacts with men are no less important. With farming on a commercial basis, the farmer as an individual can neither sell nor buy most advantageously. He has become an integral part of the many and varied phases of economic life. His interests demand that he coöperate with others in finding and utilizing the best markets, in standardizing agricultural products, and in getting fair transportation facilities and rates. As a consumer likewise his rights can only be safeguarded by the coöperative efforts of farmers as a group. He is vitally interested in state and national legislation and its bearing upon agricultural pursuits.

The farmer and government.—As a class the farmer has had very little representation in the government. His interests, so far as they have been kept before the law-making and the law-enforcing bodies of the country, have

usually been entrusted to individuals from other vocational groups, often with interests competing with his own. This has probably not been due so much to the lack of interest in politics and public affairs in general on the part of the farmer as it has to lack of concerted action and of genuine rural leadership. While there are undoubtedly many deep students of public problems in rural communities, they have been scattered and their knowledge and ability have not been capitalized in service. Consequently, only in times of economic stress and crises has agriculture received from statesmen the attention due its importance in the social and economic life of the nation.

The organization of rural communities.—Owing to the relative sparseness of rural population and the comparatively isolated and individualistic nature of agricultural activities, the organization of the rural community is extremely simple, not only in civic agencies of protection and control, but in voluntary organizations for the promotion of health, recreation, civic welfare, and the sociability, intellectual, and esthetic activities of its members.

Health in rural communities.—In the city the individual is surrounded by regulative and protective health agencies; his personal responsibility in the matter of health is reduced to the minimum. The open country and the village have better natural conditions for health in the way of fresh air, sunlight, and open spaces, but, generally speaking, these have not been made the most of. In general, there are very few differences in the diseases of city, village, and rural communities, except that the death rate in rural sections is probably higher in such diseases as malaria, influenza, typhoid, smallpox, and certain other diseases due to personal contact. Studies have also shown a larger percentage of rural and village children than of city children suffering from such ailments as bad teeth, adenoids, diseased tonsils, defective eyesight, malnutrition, enlarged glands, weak lungs, weak heart, and defects of the ears.

These conditions are partially due, perhaps, to the lack of health supervision in the schools of small communities and also to the fact that people in rural sections particularly are very slow to place children under medical and surgical attention. The health in small communities with reasonable care and regulation should be better than in cities. Under present conditions in such communities the maintaining of conditions favorable to good health depends largely upon the individuals of the community. The individuals themselves, however, have usually not been educated in regard to matters of sanitation and health. More knowledge about sanitation in the home and its surroundings, the choice and preparation of foods, the care of the body, sleeping conditions, causes of impure water and means of providing pure water, dangers of flies, etc., the causes and means of controlling contagious diseases, and modern facilities and methods of caring for the sick is urgently needed in most small communities.

Means of culture in the rural community.—The means of culture are comparatively few in rural and village communities. The city has its libraries, its art galleries, its theaters, its musical organizations, and its lectures and night schools. The average rural or village community has none or few of these. With the advent of the moving picture and the radio, means, such as they are, both of culture and recreation have been brought within easy reach of many rural and village homes. With rural mail delivery the rural home has been placed in touch with the world through the newspaper and the magazine. The improvement of roads and the almost universal use of the motor car have brought the rural home in closer physical contact with centers of population. All these modern agencies of communication have helped to reduce the isolation of rural life. They have not been, however, an unmixed good. In some ways they have operated in the direction of disintegrating the rural community by tending to lead it to

finding its various satisfactions, social and otherwise, outside its own boundaries. It has tended often to neglect the cultivation of its own resources. For the maximum development of its members, the rural community needs as much as ever cultural and recreational activities of its own.

Forms of recreation in the rural community.—Forms of recreation are largely lacking in a large proportion of rural communities. The natural opportunities for recreation, particularly of the outdoor types, are good in the country and village. While many people prefer those types of recreation which one can pursue alone, as reading, walking, fishing, etc., probably the majority of persons find their satisfactions mainly in those forms of recreation and diversion demanding group action. In this latter type the country in particular is lacking. This lack of means of recreation is especially serious as it concerns the young people of the community. Much could be done through organized effort in the way of choral singing, amateur dramatics, community gatherings with dancing and games, instrumental musical clubs, and other social functions. The home also through games, musical instruments, magazines, and books might do much as a center for the recreational, esthetic, and intellectual interests of its members. Because the farm is and must for a long time be, at least in a large degree, a family enterprise, the home must be its center and should furnish in a large measure the stimulating satisfactions of each and all of its members.

Intellectual activities in the rural community.—Intelligence, in part at least, is the product of mind in contact with mind. It comes from the stimulus of the intellectual activities of groups. In the natural course of their occupational pursuits the farmer and the farm woman do not have these contacts. Their opportunities for discussing community problems and the more general problems of

to-day are extremely limited as compared with those of workers in the fields of trade, industry, or the professions. In recent years especially, various farm and rural organizations, including also villagers, have done a great deal to supply these opportunities. Much is yet to be done. In general, rural communities are lacking in clubs and other organizations the aims of which are the stimulation and the satisfaction of intellectual desires. Especially are such opportunities for farm women lacking.

Sociability in the rural community.—In many rural communities there is a dearth of social activity. The sociability phases of life may almost be said to have atrophied. For old and young, there is little to break the drab monotony of daily toil. One day follows another with benumbing sameness. Under such conditions neighborhood spirit dies and neighborly good will languishes. The young people of such a community naturally turn wherever they may to satisfy their desires for sociability and often are lost to the community that might otherwise have offered them their best opportunities and made progress because of their services. Material prosperity alone is not enough for the welfare of a community.

The country as a place to live.—Prosperity is essential if the rural population of this country is to represent in the future the high type of citizenry that it has in the past. Material prosperity, however, is not enough. The rural family must also be placed in a position to enjoy those more intangible, yet none the less essential, phases of life which go to make up the sum total of human happiness. The farm home must have conveniences comparable to those of educated and refined people in other fields of endeavor. It must within itself and in its environment satisfy the esthetic side of human nature. It must be reasonably well supplied with things artistic, with books, magazines, and music. The rural community must meet the social needs of its members both young and old. It must

be a place to live as well as a place in which to earn a living.

Relation of country and village.—In the consideration of rural life much that has been said has applied also to the rural town and village. These should receive some special attention, however. Especially, as a result of improved roads, the automobile, and other means of communication and travel, the rural town and village should become more than ever before the center of many of the important activities of the surrounding country. The destinies of the rural town and of the open country are inextricably woven together. Too often in the past the small town has fronted away from the country by which it was supported and aped the city. The village dweller has frequently regarded himself as socially superior to his rural neighbor. Often he has not studied in any systematic manner the services he might render the farming population to their mutual advantage. Greater coöperation would undoubtedly benefit both the country and the town. J. H. Kolb in a study of the "Service Relations of Town and Country" in Dane County, Wisconsin, has shown clearly what these relations might well be. He has also arrived at certain conclusions that are probably applicable to towns and country in general.

To quote: "Since the farmer and his neighbors are thus so clearly bound to the town, the types of services which are available to him and the character of those agencies which make these services their specialty are matters of first importance. In no small way this town becomes the farmer's gateway into the world. The gate swings both ways, however, toward the farmer as goods and services are passed to him by the town from the world, and away from him as he passes his goods and services on through the town." The same author gives six fundamental services essential to the rural community. These are: "the economic, including merchandizing, marketing, and finan-

cing; the educational; the religious; the social; communication and transportation; and organization activity."[3]

Coöperation between country and village.—Sympathetic and intelligent coöperation between town and country is undoubtedly to the best interests of both. Not only should the town be the banking and trading center for the farmer and his marketing or shipping point, but, with modern means of travel, it may for most rural communities be much more. It can become the center of many of the health, civic, sociability, and recreational activities in the promotion of which the entire community is interested and in which all can advantageously work together toward common ends. It should become the natural focal point of the religious life of the community. Usually, because of roads, geographical location, and living accommodations, it is the logical educational center, especially for secondary education. In connection with its secondary school, it may well become the center for the community library, athletic sports, and the intellectual and artistic interests of the community as a whole.

Similarities between rural and village communities.—Towns and villages have health problems very similar to those of rural communities. Health and sanitation are usually but imperfectly cared for or supervised. The individual is largely responsible for the maintaining of desirable health conditions. Although facilities and means of recreation and general sociability are usually better provided for in village communities than in the open country, they are often deficient in many respects. The intellectual and esthetic sides of life are frequently but little encouraged. The fundamental principles of economics and sociology are but little understood or recognized

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[3] J. H. Kolb, "Service Relations of Town and Country," Research Bulletin No. 58, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis. (December, 1923), p. 3.

in determining the relationships between village and country people.

The secondary school in country and village.—What are the implications as to secondary education in rural and village communities to be drawn from the characteristics and needs of those communities? They would appear to be fairly clear and definite. With the exception of the elementary school, the secondary school is the only institution of formal education with which all or a major portion of the children come in touch. This will be especially true where the secondary school is built upon a six-year elementary education, a rapidly growing tendency in rural and village as well as in urban centers. With such an organization the secondary school has the opportunity of giving each child in most states a minimum of two years of training and a maximum of six at a time when he is interested in and capable of understanding many of the problems vital to the community and the country as a whole. To function effectively, to render the service it is capable of, will in most small communities require a reorganization and a repointing of the educational activities of the secondary school. It cannot continue to give complacently a type of education in no way intimately related to the problems and activities of modern life.

The secondary school as a social institution.—The rural or village secondary school should be a social institution to promote the welfare of society through the education of all normal adolescents with reference to their abilities, aptitudes, and interests, and their social and physical environment. It should work out and up from the experience background of the child, gradually guiding him to an understanding of himself and helping him to make his adjustments in a vital way to the demands of life as they are to-day and will probably be in the near future. This the secondary school in the small community has done in no adequate sense as studies of the small high school have

amply shown. It has, both in its general activities and in its program of studies, been largely divorced from the things which the majority of its pupils will need to know or do in their daily activities either as adolescents or as adults. In no real sense has it revealed to them higher activities that have any intimate relation to the things they might do to add to the satisfactions of their everyday life or the lives of those about them. It has in no appreciable degree developed abiding intellectual and esthetic interests. Its energies have been frittered away too largely upon activities of vague and marginal values.

The responsibilities of a democratic type of secondary school.—If it is to be a real democratic type of educational institution, it should give the opportunity for a liberal education, but liberal in the sense of a broad, sympathetic understanding and appreciation of the important and significant life activities of to-day. It should assist the pupil to become an efficient member of society by helping him to know himself, his abilities, aptitudes, and interests, and by equipping him in the most direct way possible to realize upon his inheritance and to render his service, whatever it may be, to society. For many of its pupils this will mean that opportunities for vocational training must be afforded. Its work in a small community should be determined with reference to the significant activities of that community but should not be limited to them. Often it will need to supplement, enlarge, or redirect the activities of a particular community through education in the light of the desirable trends in social and economic progress.

In the light of the characteristics and needs of rural and village life, the secondary school would at least emphasize health, science, economics, the place and functions of civic and general social institutions, industrial and intellectual history, vocational activities and their place, requirements, opportunities, and relationships in modern civilized society. It would offer opportunities for broad acquaint-

ance with, and appreciation of, literature, especially of modern times, and seek to develop habits and standards of reading both for information and enjoyment. It would afford opportunity for, and encourage, training in desirable types of recreation, and it would seek to stimulate permanent intellectual and esthetic interests and desires. It would strive to develop under guidance the tendencies of sociability through participation in social activities. Above all, through all its work, it would strive to develop, within the possibilities of the individual, resourcefulness, intellectual honesty, correct habits of thinking, and an open mind. "No school has a rarer chance to study, to teach, and to impress the great fundamentals of human living and social and economic relations than has the high school within reach of a country community. Here life is unadulterated with much that disturbs elsewhere, and here a miracle awaits the hand of the teacher who fully realizes his opportunity to influence the life of his people in his own day and time."[4]

Problems

1. What important changes have taken place in rural life and what bearing do they have upon the problems of education in rural high schools?
2. In the light of the nature and breadth of the demands upon the individual of farming as a vocation, what phases of secondary education should have attention in the programs of studies of rural high schools?
3. What are some of the more common lacks and deficiencies in rural life? Show as specifically as possible their bearing upon secondary education in rural communities.
4. What relationships are desirable between the town or village and the surrounding country? How may the high school serve as an integrating agent?
5. Either defend or oppose the proposition that: The high

[4] Eugene Davenport, *Education for Efficiency* (D. C. Heath, 1909), Ch. ii, p. 52.

school for rural children should in a rural environment train its pupils for rural life.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX I

OUTLINE IN AGRICULTURE FOR GRADES SEVEN AND EIGHT[1]

I. Relation of the Farmer to Nature
  A. Relation to Energy
    (*a*) Light and heat
      1. Light and food manufacture in plants
      2. Temperature and seed germination
      3. Temperature and rate of growth of plants
      4. Temperature and distribution of farm crops
      5. Temperature and crop pests
      6. Temperature and storing and shipping of products
      7. Temperature and seasonable distribution of labor
      8. Importance of studying weather from the U. S. Weather Bureau
    (*b*) Electrical energy
    (*c*) Power
  B. Minerals
  C. Plants
  D. Animals
  E. Relief
    1. Relation of relief to the use of machinery and costs of crop production
    2. Relation of relief to soil erosion

[1] Abstracts from a prevocational course in agriculture for the seventh and eighth grades developed for the rural high schools of Currituck County, N. C., under the direction of E. E. Windes, associate specialist in rural education, United States Bureau of Education. The course in full with suggested references is given in Rural School Leaflet No. 26 (August, 1924), United States Bureau of Education, "Types of Courses of Study in Agriculture."

3. Relation of relief to transportation and road-building
4. Relief and crop distribution
5. Relief and problems of drainage

F. Soil

II. The Farmer and the Public

A. The Public a Market

(*a*) Producing for the market

1. Quantity of products, prices, and production costs
2. Quality and form of products

(*b*) Stimulating the market. Prices and advertising

(*c*) The public controlling agriculture

1. Conservation laws
2. Control of transportation
3. Control of credit
4. Control of pests
5. Control of standards, etc.

(*d*) The public and land values, population density, and land prices.

1. Local treatment

(*e*) The public dependent upon agriculture.

III. The Farmer and the World of Workers

A. Comparative Study of Occupations

B. Occupations to be Studied

C. Relation of the Farmer to Selected Occupational Workers

IV. The Farmer as a Producer

A. Growing Cotton: Sampling of Problems and Skills

1. Selecting seed cotton in the field
2. Selecting a variety to grow
3. Controlling boll weevil
4. Selecting cotton-tillage implements

B. Growing Corn

C. Growing Sweet Potato Slips

D. Determining Profit or Loss a Dairy Cow Returns for Feed

E. Growing Pigs

F. Raising Chicks

G. Keeping Bees

APPENDIX II

Suggested Single Curriculum for Small Junior High Schools[1]

Grade 7		Grade 8		Grade 9	
Studies	Periods	Studies	Periods	Studies	Periods
Required:		*Required:*		*Required:*	
English	5	English	5	English	5
History and Geography	5	History	5	Science	4–5
Mathematics	5	Mathematics	4–5	Physical Education	2
Hygiene	2	Hygiene	2	Occupations or Vocational Civics (boys ½ yr.)	
Physical Education	2	Physical Education	2	Home Sanitation and Hygiene (girls ½ yr.)	
Music	1	Music	1	Community Civics or Economic Civics (½ yr.)	5
Government and Citizenship	1	Government and Citizenship	1		
Penmanship	1	Elementary Science	2–3		
Practical Arts: household arts (girls); manual arts (boys)	4	*Elective:*		*Elective:*	
		Practical Arts: household arts (girls); manual arts (boys)	4	Algebra or General Mathematics	4–5
Elective:		Agriculture	4	History	4–5
Drawing	2	Latin	4	Latin	5
Latin (choose one.)	3–4	Commercial (choose two.)	4	Home Economics	4–5
				Manual Arts	4–5
				Commercial Arithmetic (½ yr.)	
				Business Practice (½ yr.)	5

[1] *Ohio High School Standards*, 1923 Revision, prepared by Walton B. Bliss, p. 51.

THIRD YEAR'S DEVELOPMENT OF JUNIOR-HIGH-SCHOOL PROGRAM OF STUDIES[1] IN 6-3-3, 6-6, AND 6-4 SYSTEMS

Seventh Year	Periods a Week	Eighth Year	Periods a Week	Ninth Year	Periods a Week
English	5	English and Latin	5	English	4
General Mathematics	5	General Mathematics	5	General Mathematics	4
Social Studies	4	Social Studies	4	Social Studies	4
U. S. History		Community Civics		Vocational Civics (½ yr.)	
				Economic Civics (½ yr.)	
Science	5	Science	3	General Science	4
Geography (3)		Geography (½ yr.)			
Science (2)		Science (½ yr.)			
Health	3	Health	2	Health	2
Practical Arts	2	Practical Arts	2	Practical Arts	2
Girls, Sewing (1)		Girls, Sewing (1)		Girls, Sewing (1)	
Girls, Cooking (1)		Girls, Cooking (1)		Girls, Cooking (1)	
Boys, Ind. Arts (2)		Boys, Ind. Arts (2)		Boys, Ind. Arts (2)	
Fine Arts	2	Fine Arts	2	Fine Arts	2
Art (1)		Art (1)		Art (1)	
Music (1)		Music (1)		Music (1)	

Activities	2	Activities	3	Activities	3
Auditorium (1)		Auditorium (1)		Auditorium (1)	
Home-room Period (1)		Home-room Period (1)		Home-room Period (1)	
Clubs (1)		Clubs (1)		Clubs (1)	
Guidance	1	Guidance	1		
		Junior Business Training (1st semester)			
		Elective (2nd semester)	3	Elective	5
		Junior Business Training		Commercial	
		Foreign Language		Foreign Language	
		Practical Arts		Practical Arts	
Total	30	Total	30	Total	30

[1] *Manual for Junior High Schools,* Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, 1925, p. 44.

PROGRAM OF STUDIES IN OPERATION IN JUNIOR UNIT OF THE MILFORD JUNIOR-SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL OF MILFORD, PA., IN 1925-26

Subject	Seventh Year		Eighth Year		Ninth Year	
	Number of Periods	Length of Period	Number of Periods	Length of Period	Number of Periods	Length of Period
English	4	60	4	60	4	60
Mathematics	4	60	3	60	4	60
Social Studies	4	60	4	60	4	60
Geography	4	60	4 (½ yr.)	60		
Science			4 (½ yr.)	60	4	60
Health Education	2	60	2	60	2	60
Art	1	60	1	60	1	60
Music	2	30	2	30	2	30
Ind. Arts	2	60	2	60	2	60
Home Economics	2	60	2	60	2	60
Junior Business Training			2	60	E2[1]	60
Penmanship	2	30	2	30		
Guidance	1	60				
Activities	E3	30	E3	30	E3	30
Separate Study Periods	5	60	1	37	3	39

[1] E—Elective.

APPENDIX III

An Illustration of a Rotating Schedule

	Minutes	Monday	Tuesday	Wednesday	Thursday	Friday
8:45-8:55	10	Opening exercises				
8:55-9:55	60	A	F	E	D	C
9:55-10:55	60	B	A	F	E	D
10:55-11:00	5	Setting-up exercises				
11:00-12:00	60	C	B	A	F	E
12:00-12:45	45	Luncheon				
12:45-1:45	60	D	C 50 min.	B	A	F 50 min.
1:45-2:45	60	E	D 50 min.	C	B	A 50 min.
2:45-2:50	5		Assembly 35 min.	Setting-up exercises		B 50 min.
2:50-3:50	60	F	E 50 min.	D	C	Clubs 35 min.

APPENDIX IV

OUTLINE FOR STUDY OF OCCUPATIONS

1. Brief Outline for Study of a Group of Occupations[1]
   - (*a*) Name and general character of occupational group
   - (*b*) Places visited (name of firm, address, dates)
   - (*c*) Other sources of information
   - (*d*) Important occupations in group
     - (1) In a general way, what the worker in each does —mental work, manual work
     - (2) Working conditions—light, ventilation, sanitation, hours of labor
     - (3) What the occupation offers those who can do the work well—in opportunities for usefulness, in money
     - (4) What the occupation requires of the worker in personal characteristics, general education, technical knowledge, and hand skill: to enter the position; to hold the position; to advance to higher positions
     - (5) Summary for each occupation, and for group
2. Brief Outline for the Study of a Single Occupation
   - (*a*) Name and character of occupation
   - (*b*) Places visited and other sources of information
   - (*c*) What the worker does
   - (*d*) Conditions under which work is done
   - (*e*) What the occupation requires from the worker in personal qualities, education and experience
   - (*f*) What the occupation offers the worker
   - (*g*) Is the occupation growing or on the decline?
   - (*h*) Personal application
     - (1) Does this field call for all the mental ability, education, training, experience and desirable personal qualities I possess? In what respects am I lacking?
     - (2) What is the best preparation for this vocation in school training and experience?

[1] Quoted from *General Bulletin on Guidance,* Pennsylvania Department of Public Instruction, p. 79.

APPENDIX V

EXTRACLASS ACTIVITIES IN THE 12 VILLAGE HIGH SCHOOLS OF FAIRFIELD COUNTY, OHIO, 1923-24[1]

Type of Activity[2]	Number of Schools	Type of Activity	Number of Schools
Athletics	11	Debating and literary societies	7
baseball	10	Class organizations	10
basketball	9	Music clubs	6
football	3	School publications	4
track and field work	3	Social activities	4
tennis	4	Scout work	3
volley ball	4	School councils	3
School assemblies	11	Miscellaneous clubs	5
Dramatics	8		

[1] Compiled and quoted from "The Extra-Curricular Activities in a County School System," *Journal of Rural Education*, Vol. 4, pp. 421-427, from "A Coöperative Study of Certain Phases of the Fairfield County, Ohio, School System," an unpublished report by the Department of School Administration, Ohio State University, coöperating with school authorities of Fairfield County, Ohio, for school year 1923-24.

[2] Data on types of activities are for 11 of the 12 high schools.

Occasional and special activities carried on by the schools of the county:

Baseball tournament
Basketball tournament for both boys and girls
Banquet following basketball tournament
Triangular Debate and Literary Contest
Oratorical Contest and Field Day Exercises
Spelling Contest
School Exhibit at County Fair

County Organization.—The inter-scholastic activities of the twelve high schools are directed by a committee composed of the superintendents of each of these schools, and the county super-

intendent. Meetings are held each month in the county superintendent's office. A smaller committee, consisting of three of the superintendents appointed by the county superintendent, acts as an athletic committee. They are responsible for the interschool meets and annual contests.

County-Wide Students' Council.—Early in 1924, steps were taken to establish a county-wide council for high-school students. The council as formed consists of three student members from each of the twelve high schools of the county school system. Its constitution provides for bimonthly meetings and for four working committees—program, curriculum, athletics, and social—each of which is expected to take up a definite piece of work each year. Such a council can contribute much toward giving high school students that wider experience and desirable acquaintanceship which is so necessary a part of the education of youth.

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